THE EDUCATION DIGEST

CONTENTS

uvenile Delinquents—The Latter-Day Knights
The American Scholar 1

Revival of American Education
Educational Forum 5

How Much Does College Really Cost?
School Management 8

Problems and Issues in Science Education
Rethinking Science Education 11

Development of Talent in Europe and the U. S.
North Central Association Quarterly 16

Elementary Schools during the Fabulous Fifties
The Nation's Schools 19

Skeptical Critics . . . Educational Leadership 23

Adolescence and Postponement of Adulthood
The School Review 26

Let's Free Liberal-Arts Teaching . NEA Journal 29

My Museum of Morbid English
The Journal of Higher Education 32

he Rearrangement Test
Educational and Psychological Measurement 34

Instruction in Lower-Grade Arithmetic
The Arithmetic Teacher 36

atin-American Life . . . . . Social Education 40

evels of Discussion in Reading . . Education 42

he EMH Child . . Chicago Schools Journal 45

eaching Foreign Languages without a Book
Modern Foreign Languages in High Schools 48

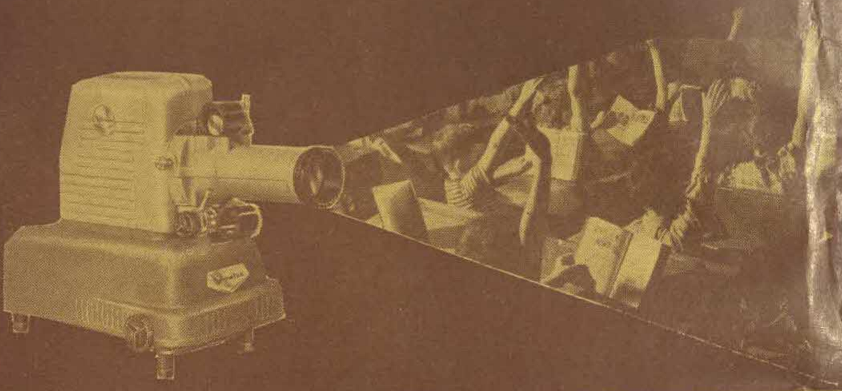
With Education in Washington 51

ducational News 55

ew Educational Materials 60

September 1960 Number 1

NEW "EASIER-TO-LEARN WITH" VIEWLEX V-25-P
DOUBLES EFFECTIVE LIGHT POWER
AT NO EXTRA COST!



Viewlex V-25-P 500 WATT
COMBINATION FILMSTRIP-SLIDE PROJECTOR

The progressive Viewlex V-25-P 35mm Filmstrip and 2" × 2" Slide Projector moves A. V. TEACHING POWER years ahead—in a single giant stride! The ultra-advanced new light source combined with the new optical system in the V-25-P literally makes it "Easier to Learn With" . . . provides twice the effective light power on-screen—at no extra cost!

With these exclusive new Viewlex features—

NEW—Revolutionary "Pop-up" lamp ejector makes lamp changing quick and easy.

NEW—Thermal-engineered super-cooling system that permits unlimited showing time, lengthens lamp life by combining unique Venturi-style lamp-housing with special Airjector opening built into newly designed die-cast base.

NEW—Elegant two-tone Charcoal and Dawn Grey "Wrinkle" textured finish.

PLUS—These additional features made famous by Viewlex:
- Simple 3 second, push-in filmstrip threading.
- Projects single or double frame filmstrip, vertical or horizontal, or 2" × 2" slides.
- Changes in seconds from film strips to slides.

Only $97.50

Also available—New Viewlex V-45-P for Filmstrip only. Has all other features of V-25-P.

Only $84.50

NEW MULTI-FOCAL ACCESSORY LENS produces images that fill screens of varied width at a given distance without moving projector or refocusing lens. It has an infinitely adjustable 3½" to 6" focal length all in one lens.

$49.50

Other Viewlex projectors available from $50.25 to $495.00. Ask your Viewlex Audio-Visual franchised dealer for a demonstration, or write for catalog.

All Viewlex Projectors are GUARANTEED FOR A LIFETIME

Viewlex Inc.
35-09 Queens Boulevard
Long Island City 1, N. Y.
World's Largest Exclusive Manufacturer of Slide & Filmstrip Projectors

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1960 by Lawrence W. Prakken

Volume XXVI SEPTEMBER 1960 Number 1

PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH BUREAU OF

32

I & Psyl.
L R I)

J867

Lost Allegiance

Juvenile Delinquents — The Latter-Day Knights

JOSEPH MARGOLIS

In The American Scholar

Joseph Margolis is Associate Professor of Philosophy at the University of Cincinnati, Ohio. Reported from The American Scholar, *XXIX (Spring 1960), 211–18.*

ADULTS nowadays are shocked by delinquency. They are concerned with the fact that it is juveniles, in mounting numbers, who are responsible for our crime records. And they are startled and horrified by certain of the most dramatic aspects of much juvenile delinquency. But, above all, they are puzzled by it, failing to find its core of sense and purpose.

I shall not attempt here to isolate the causes of juvenile delinquency. I wish only to suggest that some well-known facts about a certain kind of delinquency fall into place in a coherent pattern. An analysis of these may be fruitful.

What we require at the present time is a promising model for interpreting the various patterns of delinquency behavior. Perhaps the model I propose is inadequate; it is, however, an attempt at correcting our conception of what the delinquents in question think they are doing in carrying on the way they do. Apparently we don't understand them, for it is perfectly clear that we regard their behavior as senseless, pointless, unprovoked, inexplicable. But we must be mistaken, from their point of view, since there is among them as much seriousness, devotion to imagined duties, sense of honor and trust and cooperation (however perverse), even heroism and selfsacrifice, industry, incentive and reward, foresight and planning as can be found in any legitimate group endeavor. There is among them, moreover, an impressive enthusiasm, *esprit,* solidarity, and even pride that would be genuinely hard to duplicate:

Let me point out two important features that regularly appear in the "gang" delinquency patterns.

Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich. Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor,

The first is that "there is a war on." The second is that "there must be witnesses."

The sense of war stems partly from the quite regular skirmishes ("rumbles") between highly organized, usually well-armed, and even territorially distinct rival gangs.

But in fact there is no war; there are only patterns that strongly resemble warfare. Even the skirmishes between rival gangs are initiated largely by invitation (although it may not be possible to refuse it). "Do you want a rumble?" is, apparently, a common announcement that sufficient reason has been found for a skirmish to be staged. Nevertheless, there seems to be an understanding between warring companies that a return engagement is always to be expected and that no surrender or compensation could establish peace. Moreover each group seems primarily occupied with the way its own champions conduct themselves.

I have said that "there must be witnesses." There are always witnesses because these delinquents specialize in forays, in group adventures in which more than two boys participate. It is important, apparently, that accredited observers attest the prowess, hardness, strength, courage, cruelty, imagination of any single participant. It would be an absolutely idle waste of energy to commit any of the crimes that are committed and to go unnoticed.

I should like now to speak of gangs in another way. In my opinion, in the large urban centers in which delinquency is mos flagrant, juvenile gangs constitute the most coherent, publicly self-conscious, and vigorous communities that can be found. I discount businesses, churches, schools, the police, and other similar groups as not, properly, forming neighborhoods. The gangs actually live together as social ensembles, the perfection of their communities marred here and there by the impinging adult world.

The city is the locale of disintegrating neighborhoods but is, at the same time, the locale of a rising, novel, and peculiarly mobile neighborhood. In short, increasingly in our cities (as well as in certain cities of Europe and Asia) the most effective and powerful neighborhoods that exist are the juvenile neighborhoods. They are the ones, ironically, that preserve some measure of face-to-face community living.

Now the adult world thinks of these delinquents as deviants, outlaws, irresponsibles; it is baffled by its inability to contain them. But the juveniles themselves actually form a string of genuine and relatively stable neighborhoods, with a day-to-day code of conduct, a system of sanctions and rewards, a calendar of community life, an educational program, and facilities for communications and the provision and distribution of goods and services. The adult world has abdicated in large part its neighborhood responsibility and authority

By its increasing inertia, it has allowed control to pass into the hands of vigorous and ardent youngsters, whose code, however, does not promise to preserve the adult's law-abiding values.

The juvenile neighborhood makes up a simple society in which everyone is known by name and face and accomplishment. It is an aristocratic society—frequently monarchial—but in any case ruled by its most talented persons. The society is usually, at its most audacious, a society of warriors and "free" souls who accept only those limitations on conduct that, as a corporation, they themselves impose. But it also is a society of pranksters, gaming companions, exhibitionists, children, concerned as much with extremities of style in dress and speech as with murder and theft. It is always, however, a loyal brotherhood provided with a more or less clear schedule of honors. And it leads what is essentially a public life, protected as far as possible from the eyes of law-enforcement agencies.

ARE THEY KNIGHTS?

If we are to understand this model, we shall find that we must look to some surprising parallels. I should suggest, because of its familiarity, that of the Knights of the Round Table, without at all ignoring the willingness of our own juvenile gangs to give themselves—in all candor and accuracy—sinister and evil and even repugnant names. It is important to notice that there are no ready models (even models that they might pervert) to be found in the law-abiding world. And it is important also to isolate that critical feature of their own way of life that is so entirely alien to the ideology of the adult world.

The feature in question may perhaps most succinctly be described as "climax-technique" (I borrow the term from the accounts of the code of life of the pagan Teutonic knights). I submit that our juvenile gangs implicitly subscribe to this significant principle, however corrupt their particular values may be said to be. Briefly, the routine of ordinary, unadventurous life is quite worthless, boring, idle to our juveniles; it is made supportable only by celebrating previous sorties and by preparation for others.

In an odd sense, then, the juvenile does not wish to be idle—idleness is death to him. But, curiously, he considers the life of the adult world (and his submission to it) an idle life and, correspondingly, the adult world views his exploits also as a species of idling. The significance of his life lies exclusively in the climactic and perilous mountain peaks of the adventures he enters into so wholeheartedly (an important inversion of the purity of the soul we associate with, say, the devotion of the Round Table Knights). So he proves himself from episode to episode—whether by torture, theft, sexual liberties, murder, fighting, vandalism—always in accord with the strict code of his own society.

The values of the adult world have to do with docility and safety and, most important, with the merits of prolonged routine work. It is here, therefore, that we have the most dramatic evidence of the breakdown in the educational apparatus of the adult world, of the autonomy of the juvenile; we must acknowledge the existence of a subsociety that effectively recruits and instructs novices (willing or not) in a way of life that, in the most fundamental manner possible, is opposed to the value of an otherwise incredibly powerful society.

The juvenile world is simply slipping through very strong nets; but, as it does, it is also managing to get control of the vital neighborhood. It repudiates the declared values of the adult world and, finding itself potentially in control of an unorganized neighborhood, simply reinforces the quite naturally intimate and sustained society of the young and moves to institutionalize its own values. It is necessarily parasitic, feeding on the wealth and skills and goods of the adult world, relieved therefore of any positive concern with the maintenance of the requisite routines; and thus relieved, it is almost entirely free to pursue those special ritual adventures by which it distinguishes itself.

The phenomenon of the delinquent gang is not an altogether new one. Gang and quasitribal patterns are quite familiar among adolescents, patterns at once compulsive and inclined toward outlawry. Still, we cannot fail to notice certain distinctive features of the current delinquency: the advanced decline in adult participation in the forming and maintaining of neighborhood policy, particularly with respect to the hour-to-hour activities of the adolescent and the apparently easy accessibility of dangerous weapons. We may also remark the juvenile's interest in the publicized exploits of otherwise unfamiliar criminal "heroes." Delinquency appears to have taken on an epidemic quality, and the criminal achievements of newly discovered offenders invite appraisal and emulation. In fact, the ever-efficient press actually facilitates the standardization of juvenile conduct, and consequently that of juvenile crime.

Although it would be madness to refuse to admit the threat posed by juvenile gangs and their responsibility for their own crimes, it would be a serious blunder to imagine that increasing the severity of penalties for juvenile criminals will in any way reduce their activity. Similar measures have not affected senior crime. Given the mentality of the juvenile types I have been trying to describe, such measures can only serve to make their lives more daring and more exciting, without at all disturbing the solidarity of their society. Punishment, then, is a force somewhat misapplied, since it aims at restraining the juvenile and not at recovering his allegiance. But it is precisely this allegiance that the adult world has lost. •

What Is the Heart of the Problem?

Revival of American Education

I. L. KANDEL

In The Educational Forum

THE American public has always manifested a strong faith in the provision for education. In the last few years, however, it has begun to show a serious concern about the quality of education being given in the schools that it has generously provided and maintained. A period of unrest should offer an excellent opportunity to draw up an inventory of the weak and strong points of this institution which is the object of dissatisfaction. Rarely, however, have effective efforts been made to correct patent errors even when they have been pointed out.

An inventory of the strong and weak points of American education would certainly justify the people's pride in their faith in education and in the gradual attainment of the ideal of providing equality of educational opportunity. No other country has as many students enrolled in its educational institutions at all levels. The provision of buildings and equipment is lavish—sometimes more lavish than the educational and instructional needs require; the material fabric may, in fact, delude the public into confusing "schooling" with education.

Statistics of enrolments in high schools and colleges may indeed be regarded with pride. But they are meaningless in the light of the low grade of achievement cited by many sincere and thoughtful critics of the present day practices.

Some of the causes of the weaknesses of American education can be found in present practices and in the trends which have developed in recent years. But, speaking generally, the basic weakness of American education has been caused by the constant change of fashions, which began to be decried before progressive education became the dominant theory. Experimentation and pseudoscientific methods, as well as the administrative pressure to "sell" education to the public, were in turn responsible for the multiplicity of cure-alls, panaceas, and half-baked ideas which flourished for a while and had their days until something new was concocted.

The curriculum-revision jamboree, as the late Dr. Bagley called

I. L. Kandel is Professor Emeritus of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. Reported from The Educational Forum, *XXIV (March 1960), 271-78.*

it, was succeeded by the child-centered school; then came *seriatim* education for technocracy, education for the air age, education for international understanding, the cult of Latin America, education for victory, education for the space age, education for the atomic age, and then the community-centered schools. The end of slogans has not yet come, and there is still a chance for education for the electronic age. The electronic devices will commend themselves as aids to teachers as well as substitutes for teachers in this age of shortages.

TEACHERS CONFUSED

In a yearbook on *The American School Superintendency* (1952), it was admitted that "many teachers are confused by the changes in theory and practice that appear to them to be advocated in rapid and bewildering sequence." Beset by all the changes in theory and practice, the teacher is expected to be a combination of psychiatrist, social scientist, scientist, and an individual of considerable culture; also a man or woman of action. The list might be expanded by adding that he should also be a hygienist, guidance and welfare officer, and able to participate in extracurricular activities.

It is for these reasons that the Harvard Committee was justified in writing in *General Education in a Free Society* that "we are faced with a diversity of education which, if it has many virtues, nevertheless works against the good of society by helping to destroy the common ground of training and outlook on which any society depends." Dewey's suggestion 20 years ago that education be discussed without qualifying labels has never commended itself to educators.

Under the circumstances it is difficult to discover where the leadership so urgently needed today will be found. Federal leadership is feared lest the price for it may be too high and at the expense of local initiative and independence. The fear of external dictation, however, does not seem to extend to the acceptance of grants from a private foundation to put into practice ideas elaborated in the foundation's sanctum. In this way there have been subsidized the use of teachers' aides, the employment of "master-teachers," the more extensive use of TV programs, and a new scheme for the preparation of teachers.

The use of teachers' aides was tried and abandoned in the early years of this century. The "master-teacher" idea recalls the Lancasterian system in which one teacher first taught a large class, and monitors continued his work with smaller groups. The term "master-teacher" misrepresents the original use of the term. Educational TV is no doubt valuable as an aid or supplement, but it becomes open to suspicion when it is recommended as a method of "deploying" teachers and of solving the problem of teacher shortages. Pedagogical memories are short and the experiments with educational films and radio have already been forgotten. The personal and direct influence of the teacher cannot be replaced by broadcasting "his master's voice" into the classroom. Nor is there any substantial innovation in the scheme to prepare teachers by fastening the technical parts of education on to a completed liberal education; that is not the way that the much-needed reform of teacher preparation lies.

HEART OF THE PROBLEM

The heart of the problem of educational revival lies in the reform of the preparation of teachers for elementary and secondary schools and the establishment of the teaching career on as dignified a professional basis as is enjoyed by other professions. The classroom teacher should have greater opportunities for participating in leadership instead of being a "hand" in a system, even if the system is administered by a good board of education, a good superintendent, and a good principal. The success of an educational system depends on what goes on in the classroom and, therefore, on the teacher.

As the burden of administration of an educational system takes on more of the characteristics of big business, other sources of leadership must be found. With increased professional preparation, the status of teachers and administrators has changed markedly since the days when there may have been some justification for the "factory system" of administration.

Nor can the participation of the public be ignored. Since the end of World War II, the public has voiced its concern about the quality of education at both the elementary and secondary levels. In many areas public councils have sprung up and are devoting their attention to raising the standards and quality of education. Leaders concerned with the national welfare and the cultural progress of the country have frequently pointed to the importance of an adequate preparation of the nation's potential leaders and manpower. The opportunity now presents itself of capitalizing on the new-found concern of the public for quality of education and of strengthening the American system of education at those points where the deficiencies have been emphatically revealed during the past few years. There may be a new emphasis on the quality of education and on raising standards. Committees may devote their attention to new courses in science and mathematics.

But such activities will be of no avail unless every student in every school in the country is taught by teachers who are professionally competent. And professional competence means a mastery of subject matter as well as a knowledge of the techniques of teaching. The two sides of competence have too long been separated, and the time has come to realize that they are aspects of the same activity. •

High Today—Higher Tomorrow

How Much Does College Really Cost?

In School Management

Reported from School Management, *IX (March 1960), 61-62, 115, 116.*

MOST authorities predict that college enrolments will double by 1970, while college operating expenses will almost triple. One question that hasn't been asked in these projections: Who will foot the bill, estimated at more than $10 billion?

It is quite possible that sheer inability to pay the tab for increased costs may well "solve" the over-enrolment problem. That it will have an effect of major proportions is borne out by the results of a recent study of parents' college plans conducted by Elmo Roper Associates for the Ford Foundation.

Roper uncovered a shocking amount of misinformation about present and future college costs. Two major conclusions emerge from his cross-section survey of 5,000 heads of households: First, parents are grossly underestimating the cost of higher education. Second, parents are making almost no adequate plans for financing their children's college careers. Nevertheless, despite this unrealistic view of the cost problem, they expect 69 percent of their children under 18 years of age to go to college.

There would be nothing particularly startling about all this were it not for one shocking fact. Half the parents Roper consulted had no idea of what a college education might cost. Those who did, expected the median cost to be $1,450 per year, *including everything—tuitions, fees, books, supplies, room, board, clothing, entertainment, travel, and all other incidentals.*

Unfortunately, even those parents with some idea of what their expenses will be are making a critical error in their calculations. They are basing their estimates on present-day costs. This is a dangerous assumption. Nor can existing scholarship or loan funds be depended on to close the gap between student need and available financial help.

As for the government's share of the burden of college financing, it is safe to assume that it will increase in the next decade. But there is no assurance that federal funds will ever be great enough to relieve entirely the pinch families with college-bound youngsters are sure to feel.

To clear up some of the misunderstanding and misinformation that prevails on the subject, *School Management* recently conducted its own investigation of what it costs to go to college. Many authorities were consulted in the attempt to set the record straight.

The facts which follow were obtained in this inquiry.

Member colleges of the College Entrance Examination Board find that the average yearly expense faced by students stands today at $1,736. Costs range from a low of $162 at one municipal school to $2,950 at an independent college. Expenses at a majority of the 250 member institutions fall between $1,000 and $2,000; costs at the top quarter of these schools are above $2,000. Only 6 percent of the schools list costs below $1,000.

These figures include only basic costs—tuition and fees, books and supplies, room and board. Not included are such items as entertainment, clothing, travel, and that catch-all, miscellaneous. This last group of expenses can loom large depending on whether the school attended is public or private, the size of the family's income, where the college is located, and what the student's habits—and needs—are.

Harvard University has published an estimate of personal expenses of the average student. It is suggested that a budget of $400 yearly should be enough to meet all of a student's needs with the exception of tuition and room and board. Travel, if the student's home is far from Cambridge, Massachusetts, is extra.

The time-honored method of paying for college expenses is for the student to work his way through school. But a great deal depends on the school in question. Are there enough jobs available to meet student demand? And much, too, depends on the student. How much of an outside work load can he assume before it affects his academic performance?

WORK OR AID?

Opinions vary concerning the optimum outside work load a student can safely accept, but 10 to 15 hours per week seems to be the limit generally agreed on. Considering that the average wage is approximately $1 an hour, a working student can count on $300-$450 of earned income per 30-week school year. This, combined with any additional income he might earn during the summer, could pay for a major share of his college costs, *provided* expenses at the school of his choice are modest. If he has set his heart on a more expensive school, he will be forced to investigate other ways to obtain financial assistance.

The student may already have looked into the availability of scholarships to help him through college. These are offered by many of the schools themselves, as well as by a wide variety of business, religious, and fraternal organizations, individual states, and groups and foundations. On the face of it, it might seem that there are plenty of scholarship programs available. Roper found that 41 percent of the parents interviewed are planning to make use of them. But in most of the colleges checked by *School Management*, a much lower percentage of students receive such aid. Scholarship funds are becoming increasingly harder to find. And, with higher enrolments in the next decade, chances are these funds will become rarer still.

There is one other avenue of financial aid open to the student who has exhausted other means of meeting college costs – student loans. Most colleges have some system of lending money to needy applicants. In fact, some educators feel that making education available on a loan basis is preferable to the work-and-study alternative.

On-campus student-loan programs, however, are generally of an emergency nature designed to help the student out of a temporary financial hole. Consequently, loans rarely go beyond $500, though some schools set limits as high as $2,000.

Under the National Defense Education Act of 1958, the federal government stepped into the picture with a student-loan program that permits borrowing up to $1,000 a year for five years. Repayment needn't begin until a year after graduation and—if the student becomes a teacher—10 percent of the loan is forgiven for each year of teaching up to five years. In other words, under these conditions only about half the loan must be repaid.

But here again, the demand has far outstripped the supply. According to Secretary Flemming's year-end report, there are not now sufficient funds for current requests by participating schools.

Instalment buying is also being experimented with in some quarters. A private organization advances the total amount needed, and the student's family pays off the debt in instalments. But this whole idea of long-term borrowing to pay for higher education is repugnant to many serious educators who feel that few students are willing to mortgage their futures. The idea, too, conflicts with the avowed purpose of state universities and colleges to be integral parts of every state's free public-school system.

The only certain prediction that can be made about the cost of college is that it is bound to mount in the coming decade. Whether or not these increased costs can be offset by enlarged scholarship and loan programs is anyone's guess. One thing most parents can be sure of: The classic American tradition of working one's way through college will become more and more difficult every year.

The best way parents can insure their children's college education is to keep well informed about the real costs they must meet. Their key source of information for this purpose must be the high-school guidance counselor. He can fill the gaps in their knowledge and—from his better understanding of the over-all picture—direct students' attention to schools that are within their academic and financial grasp. •

Will They Ever Be Completely Solved?

Problems and Issues in Science Education

PAUL DEH. HURD and PHILIP G. JOHNSON

In Rethinking Science Education

THERE is, today, a general ferment in education, but it is perhaps most active in the area of science education.

Some of the issues involved in current discussions are of long standing; others are of recent origin. Several are the result of large social movements and phenomenons, such as: (*a*) the growth of school population, (*b*) the shortage of qualified teachers, (*c*) the accelerated achievements in science, (*d*) the demand for an increase in technically trained manpower, (*e*) the growing importance of science in the affairs of mankind, (*f*) changes in the processes and goals of science, and (*g*) conflicting opinions concerning the role of the school in the education of youth. Many of the issues are also intertwined with broader problems of education, such as finance, organization of the schools, and the optimum size of schools and classes.

There is no doubt that the events and circumstances of the past few years have made some traditional ideas obsolete. In our own review of the current problems and issues in science education, we sought information from many sources—articles, research, reports, etc. We also asked the views of nearly a hundred well-known scientists. We gathered opinions on many phases of this broad subject—the purposes of science teaching, the problems of organization within the schools' program, and the like. But the two problems of science teaching commented on most frequently dealt with curriculum and teacher training.

Discussion of all of these areas brings forth valuable ideas. Some current views of educators and scientists on the problems involving the teacher's role in science education and the training of science teachers should be especially useful.

Paul DeH. Hurd is Professor of Education, Stanford University, California, and Philip G. Johnson is a member of the faculty, School of Education, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. Reported from Rethinking Science Education, *Part I of the 59th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (1960), Chapter XVIII, 329-38.*

We find there is much concern currently for the way science is taught. Some of the problems include:

1. *What kind of instruction is needed for science courses?* Many commonly used teaching procedures offer little promise of realizing such objectives of science teaching as the development of problem-solving ability, critical attitudes, and an appreciation of science. The difficulty may be that science teachers have been taught by methods that did not achieve for them the results expected of pupils.

Educators realize that the improvement of instruction involves: (*a*) the better selection and use of means to develop concepts and ideas, (*b*) improved use of research-study procedures in learning science, (*c*) the organization of instruction to provide practice in the application of science theory, and (*d*) the use of methods and procedures that will develop more pupil responsibility for learning.

2. *What should be the emphasis in laboratory work?* Changing conceptions of the values and purposes of science teaching have tended toward an increasing emphasis on laboratory work. The nature of the scientific enterprise is found in the methods by which problems are attacked. Therefore, more attention should be directed to the processes or methods of seeking answers in the laboratory rather than putting so much stress on finding exact answers. More time should be spent by students in developing insights as to how data may be processed and predictions made from them.

3. *How can out-of-school activities be made more useful in achieving the objectives of science teaching?* With competent supervision, junior- and senior-high-school students make a unique contribution to the objectives of science teaching through extra-class or out-of-school activities. Such activities include science fairs, science clubs, science contests, or projects and exhibits, all of which may reflect credit on the school and the participating students. But questions are frequently posed as to whether or not all such activities serve the useful purpose of developing a better understanding of science. With reference to activities involving projects or the preparation of exhibits, it is sometimes questionable whether they are worthy ends in themselves; and it is not always easy to determine whether or not their supervision constitutes the best use of the teacher's time.

PUPIL ACHIEVEMENT

Presented below is a summary of the current problems and issues concerning teacher responsibility for pupil achievement in science.

1. *What is the responsibility of the teacher for guidance and evaluation?* Science instruction should, at all levels, acquaint children and youth with the work activities of scientists, engineers, and tech-

nicians. This aspect of teacher responsibility for guidance and evaluation of learning experiences is known to have been disregarded for years in many localities and in many types of science education. The science program should not ignore differences in ability and interest among students. Questions arise in all instructional procedures as how to best provide for the intellectual advancement of pupils of all classification groups.

2. *What should be the characteristics of the rapid-learner program in science?* The science teacher has a responsibility for the identification and cultivation of gifted students who might well become eminent scientists or teachers of science. Instructional programs designed to provide an opportunity for gifted pupils to cover the average course in science in less time than the average pupils require to complete the course should not be suspect. On the contrary, students who are capable of working with those aspects of science which are more sophisticated should be encouraged to assume more and more responsibility for their own learning as they progress through school and to avail themselves of opportunities to explore the values of research as both process and product in their pursuit of knowledge. There is, however, a commonly stated criticism of the practice among high schools of duplicating college courses in science in order to provide a rapid-learner program for the benefit of gifted students who plan to enter college.

3. *Can evaluation in science be developed in terms of the objectives of science teaching?* Many science teachers agree that a good evaluation should give evidence of the student's understanding of the science concepts, his power to think in the field, and the ability to use his knowledge in making predictions from data. A problem arises in connection with the conviction of high-school authorities that colleges do not value these achievements of students as sufficient to regard them as a major qualification for admission to college. In this situation, the high-school authorities may have some difficulty in determining what types of evaluation are to be recognized as sufficiently important to be used in measuring the outcomes of science teaching.

4. *Should there be supervision of science teaching?* The rapid extension of knowledge in the field of the sciences and the steady improvement of adult understanding of the learning process have increased the need for facilities and plans designed to help teachers achieve and maintain professional competence. That these attainments are a result of competent supervision through the years of preservice and in-service training is generally recognized.

On problems pertaining to the adequacy of personnel services and the facilities for science teaching, these seem important:

1. *How can an adequate supply of competent science teachers be maintained?* The current shortage of well-trained teachers militates against the improvement of science instruction in the schools. In part, the problem is how to get more science teachers who are well trained professionally as well as academically. A related problem involves procedures which might enable science teachers among college faculties to guide a larger number of their most promising students into teaching. The suggestion has been made that the influence of superior teachers in science areas might be advantageously extended by delegating paper-grading, housekeeping chores, and other routine functions to nonprofessional personnel. During the last decade, a great deal of effort has been expended on plans to provide better utilization of the successful teacher's time, the expectation being that the released time would be used to improve science instruction rather than for promotion of nonscience interests.

2. *How can the adequacy of facilities for instruction in science be increased?* Appropriate facilities and equipment do not insure superior teaching, but they are essential to any level of creditable teaching performance. For example, science teachers urgently need facilities in biology laboratories sufficient to accommodate the trend toward more experimentation and less observation. Junior-high-school teachers require well-designed science rooms which make it possible for pupils to carry on individual projects and laboratory work. In the science laboratories of both junior-high and senior-high schools, teacher emphasis on projects makes the working and storage areas for these activities a matter of major concern.

3. *How can the time available for teaching science be most equitably allocated?* Time for science is an issue at all levels of teaching. In the elementary school, the need for adjustment may involve a question regarding regularly assigned time. At the high-school level, recommendations of teachers will more likely be in the nature of an appeal for reallocation of the available time. This is not to imply that science should have more than its fair share of the scheduled day. The problem lies in the organization of the time required for the science curriculum.

FACTORS AFFECTING PROGRESS

Most teachers will be interested in the following factors which influence progress in science education.

1. *What kind of training do science teachers need?* The question of what constitutes the best training for science teachers has been debated for many years. The preservice education of prospective science teachers often continues to be similar to, if less than, the training considered desirable for a research scholar in science subjects. It is generally overlooked, however, that science teachers are principally

engaged in helping young people acquire a liberal education, including science, rather than in training specialists in the field of science. There are thousands of small high schools in which one person must teach biology, physics, chemistry, and any other course offered. It is, therefore, scarcely sufficient to undertake preparation of science teachers generally in light of the precise services science teachers commonly perform. The teaching of a science subject having a moving frontier would naturally entail more or less continuous study on the part of the teachers. Yet, it is not to be expected that colleges and universities will always be able to accept responsibility for keeping the teachers up to date.

2. *How can the teaching of science be improved through educational research?* Research is the means of discovering new truths about learning and about the nature of the child, as well as about physical phenomenons. The strategic problem of schools and colleges in which teachers are being trained for service in the field of education is that of acquainting both inservice and preservice teachers with the results of research investigations. It is commonly reported that, as the new knowledge disclosed by research becomes a familiar practice in the teaching process, schools and colleges disseminate this knowledge through the media of lectures, discussions, and publications. Continuously, the contributions of research investigations strengthen and expand the competence and the influence of teacher-training institutions, thereby improving classroom teaching generally.

Attempts to reformulate the philosophy of science education and activities to reorganize and improve science instruction indicate neither full agreement on past solutions of problems relating to purposes, content, and methods nor on those contributed by contemporary thought. The problems of science education will never be completely solved. But children must be inducted into a culture which is increasingly oriented in science.

There *are* areas of agreement as to how science education can be improved. The task of the educator, the scientist, and the public, generally, must be defined in terms of our present knowledge of science and the learning process, of the importance of science in contemporary life, and of our responsibility to the oncoming generation. •

MARS is the name of a star so far off it would take a million years to walk there in an express train . . . A vacuum is an empty place with nothing in it . . . The alimentary canal connects Lake Erie and the Hudson River.—Boners reported in *San Francisco Teachers Journal.*

A Comparison of Six Talents

Development of Talent in Europe and the United States

JAMES B. CONANT

In The North Central Association Quarterly

I AM well aware that the use of the word "talent" is a bit old-fashioned and not in accord with modern scientific usage. The words "aptitude" and "ability," I recognize, are much more current in psychological circles. I know, also, that no talent—or aptitude—is simple; it is composed of a number of different factors. But let me go directly to the subject which I have chosen to discuss.

James B. Conant, former President of Harvard University and U. S. Commissioner to West Germany, is well known for his reports on education in the United States. Reported from The North Central Association Quarterly, *XXXIV (April 1960), 265-72.*

First, I shall remind you of the structure of education in Europe and in the United States. I am speaking of the free nations of Europe, of course; I am going to leave the Soviet Union and its satellites out of account. I will tell you frankly that I think we have heard too much about Russian education.

What I have to say refers, then, to the Continental free nations. In these countries the educational system is so set up that many families and many children make a tremendously important choice at age approximately 11. Something like 20 percent of an age group are selected and enrolled in what I will call pre-university schools. They are selected, of course, from only those who apply—an important point. Those who do not apply, or who are not selected, go to work at 14. Meanwhile, they attend what we would call a continuation school.

We do have, in our country, different kinds of secondary schools, and they differ in quality as well as objectives. But in our system the education for all students continues to 16, 17, or 18 years of age.

Let us consider the development of talents in our high-school system as contrasted to the development of the academic talents in the European situation.

What are the talents that I have in mind? First of all is a talent for dealing with people—leadership—give it many names. It is a group of talents, I suppose, but of first importance in a democracy. Second, athletic talent; third, musical talent; fourth, artistic talent; fifth, what I shall call manipulative talent; and sixth, academic talent.

Frankly, in Europe at the taxpayers' expense and in the formal school system, practically nothing is done to develop the first four—the talent for getting on with people, athletic talent, musical talent, and artistic talent. Only the last two, the manipulative and the academic, would be considered by most Europeans as falling within the scope of their educational system. On the contrary, in the United States we have seen a tremendous movement toward all four of these talents.

The talent for dealing with people is so general and so difficult to define that I would speak of it in the general terms of what we accomplish or attempt to accomplish by courses in the social studies, by our organization of the school, by extracurricular activities in part, and by school government and organization. I think I can make a positive statement that any foreign observer who tries really to find out what is going on in our tax-supported schools will come to the conclusion that we do a far better job in this area—an area which merges with education for citizenship at several points—than any other nation in the world.

The Germans, I found, were not very enthusiastic about some features of our system. But both in Germany and in Switzerland I was asked time and again, "What do you do about education for citizenship? We know it is good. We would like to imitate it if we could."

I don't think I have to tell you what has been done in this country to develop athletic, musical, and artistic talent. Concerning the last two named I am sure you will agree that one finds great diversity. I could name school systems in which not much more is being done than in the European schools; but I could name others in which a great deal is being done at taxpayers' expense for avocational ends and almost on a professional level, too.

The European would say of this: "Oh, that has nothing to do with the state. That is entirely private and requires special time and special money. If they want to develop their musical and artistic talents, let them." I think in no respect is the European situation more different than in its disregard for the development of the musical and artistic capabilities of its students in contrast with the United States.

MANIPULATIVE TALENT

Now I come to manipulative talent, which when developed leads to skills of a competent craftsman or technician. In Europe, development of this talent is recognized as a responsibility of the educational system. Indeed, both in Switzerland and in Germany they would say that a great deal of their industrial success is based on an educational system for developing the manipulative talents. This is, however, quite apart from the development of academic talents. In Europe, when a boy graduates and leaves the common school at age 14, he goes to work. If he is interested in becoming a skilled workman, he first becomes an apprentice in one of the schools of the great industrial plants. After he has completed this training and has had a few years' experience as a skilled workman, he may take certain examinations and, having passed these, be enrolled at age 18 or 20 in a *technicum*. Through this method there are developed and trained the people who will be foremen within the plants.

We see here a whole system. But it does not approximate the vocational basis for the industrial arts in our widely conceived comprehensive high schools or in tax-supported vocational schools.

Finally, we come to academic talent. The development of academic talent in Europe is what people are thinking about when they praise European schools. Selection for pre-university schools is rigorous, the course is stiff, there is a lot of competition, there are many examinations and much homework—and from one-half to two-thirds drop out. One might get the impression that all with academic talents are automatically drawn into these schools and that only those without ability are excluded. This is far from being the case. In Europe, far more than in the United States, family tradition plays an enormous role. There are great numbers of families in every German state and in every Swiss canton that would never think of trying to have a son or daughter enrol in one of these pre-university schools, however bright he or she might be.

If I were to try to sum up the great difference between European and American tax-supported education, I would say the difference is that the Europeans are committed to developing only two talents (and those quite extensively)—the manipulative talent by one road and the academic talent by another. Who will follow each road is very largely determined by family tradition, something approaching a caste system, if you will.

In the United States, we have developed a system of schools which in many communities, but not all, is concerned with developing a great range of capabilities, each according to his own talents.

Sometimes I have met well-intentioned, interested parents or laymen who say, "Seriously, now, don't you think we ought to import the European system?" These people, of course, have heard only of the European pre-university school. They have thought that, of course, their own children would be automatically enrolled in these schools. They have never thought about the selective features or of the fact that many who enter fail. Even in this divided world with all its threats and problems, I do not believe that any radical change is required in the basic pattern of American tax-supported education —either elementary or secondary— to make it satisfactory. •

They Changed Only a Little

Elementary Schools during the Fabulous Fifties

HAROLD G. SHANE

In The Nation's Schools

Harold G. Shane is Dean of the School of Education at Indiana University, Bloomington. Reported from The Nation's Schools, *LXV (April 1960), 71-73, 146, 148.*

DURING the 1950's American public education was the object of vigorous and widespread criticism and attack without parallel in our history. Instructional methods and the quality of learning often were viewed with alarm, and the values and objectives of the schools frequently were berated with vehemence. After 10 years of this widespread discussion, it has become not only a matter of interest but also of importance to assay the effect which the Great Debate about education has had on school administrators.

A recently completed survey of elementary-school practices at the beginning and at the end of the 1950's indicates that the Great Debate apparently has reaffirmed the faith of a large majority of our superintendents in the basic soundness of the design of present-day public education. Furthermore, these administrators reflect a desire to see that all American children continue to experience enriched "liberal" programs rather than academically "conservative" instruction which merely stresses mental development.

At the same time, it should be clearly understood that U.S. educational leadership, as sampled in our study, did not favor the more thoughtless, 1920-vintage type of "progressive" education. Instead, these administrators seem to have engaged in a great reappraisal of the functions of the schools. They have discarded certain ideas they believe proved wanting and have accepted a hard core of tested modern practices that promise to elevate our schools with respect to humane, developmental concepts of teaching and learning and with respect to the increased academic progress of pupils.

Last year, in a study made at Northwestern University, administrators were invited to answer an 84-item questionnaire about how certain educational practices and conditions had been modified in their school districts in the past 10 years. A total of 183 useful replies were received and these have provided the basis for our report. There follows here a short summary of the views concerning the current situation as seen through the eyes of the administrators of 183 schools in which two million pupils are enrolled.

The elementary curriculum

actually has become somewhat more liberal during the past decade. The trend toward teaching related subject matter in relationship (for instance, combining or correlating separate classes in history and geography as "social studies") has continued to find wide acceptance.

Also, insofar as the survey sample was representative, it may be inferred that few schools have thus far made any effort to cut back their special offerings, some of which have been attacked as "frills."

Superintendents generally reported a substantial increase in lay participation in curriculum development with parents and other citizens invited to discuss and to plan with faculty members.

Asked about their aspirations for the future, only a few superintendents were concerned solely with academic progress. The remainder, including many nationally known leaders, hoped that in the sixties their schools would accept more rather than less responsibility for the social, emotional, and physical development of pupils.

REPORTING PRACTICES

The long-standing controversy over ways of reporting pupil progress continued to flourish during the period covered by this survey. According to respondents, the use of formal report cards with their *A*, *B*, *C* marks apparently held its ground, and the use of informal reporting faded somewhat but it did not reverse itself. But while it might appear that the informal reporting practices had declined or were declining, a marked increase in the liberal practice of reporting pupil progress through parent-teacher conferences was observed. In short, while the nature of report cards themselves seems to have changed but little, a distinct effort has been made to interpret pupil progress to parents through direct contact with the teacher.

The administrators polled believe that, in the future, elementary schools should plan to make even greater use of carefully designed conferences, plus supplementary letters to parents in which a pupil's academic progress, personality, characteristics, and social relations are interpreted and discussed.

Educational leaders do not seem to have been swayed during the fifties by the critics' demand that our elementary schools be made more competitive and that increased use be made of awards and honors to motivate pupils to greater effort. Returned questionnaires indicated that 50 percent of the 183 systems had encouraged competitive academic practices earlier but that such intellectual Olympics were declining.

A small minority of administrators believed that competition might be increased slightly. But generally there was no marked sympathy for the severe academic competition ingrained in many European educational systems which base admissions to college-

4- J867
CALCUTTA-19

preparatory programs on national examinations.

Insofar as future policies were concerned, two out of three administrators believe that in the sixties each child should be encouraged to compete with himself, to strive to better his own scholastic record rather than to exceed his classmates' records.

TESTS INCREASE

There was a distinct increase in the use of tests and other measurement devices during the fifties. Although a large majority of superintendents saw no great need to increase competition and academic pressures at the elementary level, they did indicate that it was desirable to use examinations to help teachers improve the quality of teaching and to help pupils improve the quality of learning experiences. Testing how well the learner had mastered assigned subject matter was deemed subordinate to the use of testing to help each child do the best he could to work at his level of ability.

Both standardized and teacher-made tests were more widely used in 1959 than in 1949. The findings suggested that many U. S. schools may be making a strenuous effort to evaluate their programs and to make improvements in any deficiencies that can be identified by tests.

An interesting aspect of the renaissance in testing was the increase in the use of essay-type examinations at the elementary level. A number of educational leaders appear to have taken seriously the statement that children need more opportunities to develop expressive skill through writing. Whatever the explanation, essay quizzes were in greater vogue in 1959 than they were 10 years earlier.

PUPIL GROUPINGS

So-called homogeneous grouping increased in popularity toward the close of the decade according to reports from the 183 school districts. In 1949-50 only a few schools had employed ability grouping. At the end of the decade its use had doubled. In some schools the plan had been extended downward to include the primary as well as the middle grades, although there were others who did not use it below grade 4.

Schools used a variety of means to determine how children should be placed in groups of slow, average, and fast learners. The most common criterions were intelligence test scores, achievement tests, and teachers' professional opinions.

The increase in ability grouping was perhaps the major evidence of conservative educational thought to be found among the trends in the several practices with which the survey was concerned. Since the proponents of progressive education have usually opposed homogeneous grouping, advocates of fundamental or basic education can take pleasure in an initial skirmish won!

The matter of administrator's

attitudes toward promotion policies is an exceedingly tricky one to interpret. In essence, none of the schools reported using the liberal policy which critics call "100 percent promotion." But essentialists who contend that children should not be promoted until they have mastered certain minimum essentials in a given grade can find little comfort in this survey. For, despite criticisms directed at liberal promotion practices, more than two-thirds of the 183 superintendents rejected the idea that progress through the grades should be governed solely by whether a child has completed prescribed, basic academic requirements as a requisite for advancement to a higher grade.

These administrators believed that few elementary-school children should repeat a grade and that their rate of progress largely should be decided on the basis of individual effort and ability rather than by success in conforming to group standards. It should be added that prevailing promotion policies in the 183 districts suggest that considerable success has attended efforts to help children stay with their agemates in school.

SPECIAL PROGRAMS

Special programs and provisions for the academically able child have increased sharply in recent years. In some schools there was a 200 percent increase in the number of special classes for fast learners. One may conclude from their reports that many superintendents are no longer confident that the needs of individual learners adequately can be met in heterogeneous or chance groupings. What this growing sentiment presages for the future is significant.

One group of questions dealt with whether U. S. schools should endeavor to provide basic literacy for all citizens or focus their efforts on academic programs designed to establish and maintain an intellectual elite. Despite the endemic interest expressed in improved programs and opportunities for intellectually superior children, majority opinion among superintendents strongly rejected any type of schooling structured to create an educational caste system in America. Educational leadership thus retains the long established point of view that no single group of American children is more worth educating than all children. At the same time these superintendents believe that mass public-school education must vary according to differences in pupils' mental ability so that we may preserve the quality of educational opportunity as well as maintain the quantity of schooling provided.

Despite the confusing educational storms created by 10 years of debate and reappraisal, school administrators are not floundering like beached whales. Instead, they appear to stand together with marked unanimity in their ideas as to what constitutes "good" education for all children. •

To Reestablish Communication with Our Friends

Skeptical Critics — Possible Allies?

Arch Lang

In Educational Leadership

My neighbor, Joe Albright, is an accountant by profession and a social critic by disposition. He reads history and biography and he keeps up with contemporary affairs through liberal magazines. On questions such as racial segregation, industrial strikes, and the United Nations, his opinions are critical and display social vision. In so many matters he has the same deep commitments as my educationist colleagues whom I think of as progressive and social-minded.

When it comes to school policy, however, the story is different. Joe is sympathetic to the pronouncements of the Council for Basic Education. He thinks the increased arithmetic homework which fourth graders now have in our town is all to the good. He doubts that children learn to read as well or as early as they should. He is for any proposal for increased emphasis on foreign language at any level. He is skeptical of emphasis on social studies, and he wonders if specialist subject teachers of science, history, and geography might not well be used in the elementary school. The high school he sees almost entirely in terms of college-preparatory and vocational-preparation courses. He thinks the case is obvious for separate classes by ability grouping, high promotion standards, and accelerated programs for bright youngsters. All of these things, to him, are ways to get trained intelligence.

It seems to me that there are many persons who think as Joe does. Because of their social vision they are to be highly valued. They are not reactionaries and they are friends of the public schools. But from the educational measures they recommend, it is evident that they and liberal professional educators are out of communication.

We educationists are engaged these days in a good deal of self-examination. As part of this process it seems worthwhile to try to locate some of the values which are shared by liberal educators and liberal citizens-at-large and search for differences in emphasis and interpretations.

1. *Concern for the common man and confidence in his potentials.* Educationists have long been

Arch Lang is Professor of Education, San Francisco State College, California. Reported from Educational Leadership, *XVII (March 1960), 369–74.*

guided by concern for the common man. However, we may sometimes appear to lack confidence in the potentials of children. We have been properly sensitive to the need for acceptance of children and for protecting them from situations where failure is unavoidable. Yet perhaps the pace of school work can be stepped up in many situations without getting into impossible drudgery of homework and without forcing children into failure. On the contrary, we may help children to discover what they can actually do with real satisfaction to them. We can use every sensitivity as to what particular children can do, with real confidence in their potential to do more than they would have done without the stimulus and resource of the teacher.

RESPECT FOR QUALITY

2. *Respect for high-quality performance.* In our concern for avoiding competitive pressures and arbitrary standards, we may have seemed to imply that quality in comparison to what others are doing or have done is of no value or importance. Yet do we really believe this or apply it in evaluating ourselves and other adults? In school we should be able to recognize and honor superior performance without subjecting children to the climate of a competitive rat-race. One help in doing this will be to continue to insist that there are many varieties of excellence and that intellectual performance is not the only kind to be honored.

3. *Respect for intellectual performance.* On this point we do one of our poorest jobs of communicating with the Joe Albrights. Joe's own sense of achievement and self-esteem is bound up with the fact that he has made a career and got recognition through brainwork. While he opposes social tendencies toward a power elite, he is sympathetic toward the idea of an intellectual elite (whether he uses just this phrase or not), provided the intellectuals neither try to grab for power nor let themselves be used by power interests.

We educationists are perhaps less single-minded in the matter than Joe is. We have so often resisted the idea that the function of the school is primarily intellectual. The reasons have been valid: the narrower intellectual emphasis in the past, the variety of abilities, the need of all-round development, the concern for acceptance and success of nonintellectual children, the practical emphasis of American culture, and the fear of using the schools to develop a social elite.

But have we perhaps overdone the matter? Educationists are intellectuals, too – of a particular kind certainly, but nevertheless people who make their careers with their brains. We know that if the schools are to be more effective, they must have more support and teachers must have more status and recognition. Should we not forthrightly recognize the preponderant intellectual orientation that does exist in schools and among schoolmen? We can encourage and recognize intellectual performance without discarding the gains which have been made in providing for all children of whatever abilities. Our ability to encourage and accept freely the potentials of intellectual children is perhaps bound closely to our ability to accept ourselves in our intellectual capacities.

CONFORMITY

4. *Opposition to tendencies which make for conformity and loss of individuality*. On this value educationists should find no conflict with the Joe Albrights. We do need to recognize the pressures from the organized complexity of society, the sheer mass of children with whom we deal, and the tendencies toward bureaucracy in every large organization, including the schools. Concern for individual development has been paramount among American educators and we should keep saying so. We have emphasized group activity as a way the individual can find himself and express himself in a social setting. We need to continue to emphasize this goal at every opportunity, and continually examine and evaluate our group techniques in the light of the goal. This is the best insurance against slipping into a conformity routine.

5. *Determination to take account of changing realities; mistrust of orthodoxies*. Joe is hardheaded. He tries hard to distinguish the factual from the fatuous. In all of this, educationists should have no quarrel with him. The problems of education will require plenty of hardheadedness as well as devotion to ideals.

The distorted stereotypes of progressive education have given Joe cause to wonder whether educationists are realistic or whether they are defenders of a new orthodoxy. There may—over the years—have been some basis for his suspicions. Yet the antidote to distortion is clear information. If the educationists of the 1960's are a more hardheaded lot, they can exhibit the fact by seeing to it that information about the schools is accurate and by avoiding clichés and vagueness. Joe will respect people who state their goals unmistakably and then lay out the difficulties and what they propose to do about them.

It is certain that educational changes will be indicated by new knowledge and new circumstances. Those of us who do not cringe at the thought of being "progressive" can, in principle at least, welcome the prospect of replacing some of our most cherished ideas by new and better ones. Nothing less will serve the present by serving the children of the time. •

IF you keep your mind sufficiently open, people will throw a lot of rubbish into it.—*William A. Orton.*

Is Marriage the Beginning of Adulthood?

Adolescence and the Postponement of Adulthood

ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST
In The School Review

ADOLESCENCE, the transition from childhood to adulthood, consists of a biological constant and a cultural variable. The biological constant is the period of puberty, from about 12 to 16 years of age, when the boy or the girl develops into the biologically adult male or female. The timing of puberty varies little under changing conditions. The cultural variable is remarkably varied.

In one society, marriage may come close to the end of puberty, at 15 or 16 years of age, and the boy may move into the girl's home. There the young couple gradually learn to become responsible parents and workers. For them, adolescence may last another five or 10 years, being completed when they move into a house of their own. In another society, marriage for the man may not come until he is in his 30's and has an established livelihood and a house for his bride. In this case adolescence closes with a late marriage.

Marriage does not necessarily mark the end of adolescence. Self-support and the establishment of a separate home are surer signs of the beginning of adulthood.

In contemporary America, marriage is often one of the events of adolescence rather than the end of adolescence. The most useful social definition of the end of adolescence in this country today is that of selfsupport. The most useful psychological definition is that of the establishment or achievement of a sense of personal identity.

Robert J. Havighurst is Professor in the Department of Education and a member of the Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago, Illinois. Reported from The School Review, *LXVIII (Spring 1960), 52-62.*

In a complex modern society such as that of the United States, there is a great deal of variety in the ending of adolescence and the beginning of adulthood—variety between social classes and even among individuals of the same social class. There is also a rapid change in this phenomenon.

Since 1900 there has been a general tendency toward the postponement of adulthood. This tendency is part of the massive movement of modern society toward industrialization and urbanization and is the cause of some of the major maladjustments in our modern society, including the disease of juvenile delinquency.

THREE GROUPS OF YOUTH

Young people can be divided into three groups according to their experiences of moving into adulthood. The first group is made up of those who follow a long course of educational training before they become selfsupporting. These are the young people who take a four-year college course, at least. Today, in increasing numbers, they go into graduate and professional schools which keep them in a student role until they are 25 or later.

A considerable number of these young people are now marrying in their early twenties. This is probably a useful adaptation to adjust the disparity between biological and cultural realities. These young people, at some stages, may have to cope with some feelings of uncertainty and insecurity, but as a result they may become persons with a complex and stable identity that is well adapted to modern society.

The second, and much the largest group at present, consists mainly of those who complete secondary school and then go to work. This group makes a gradual entry into adult roles between the ages of 17 and 20. For these, a three-year to five-year postponement of adulthood is easily tolerated as long as the young person is taking steps that surely lead to it, such as apprenticeship to a trade, a steady job with promotion, engagement to be married.

In a modern society, this type of progress to adulthood would seem to be the easiest, although it is gained perhaps at the expense of individuality, drive, and other upper-middle-class virtues.

The third group consists of boys and girls who find the path to adulthood blocked and experience great difficulty in achieving responsible adulthood. In this group lies most of the social pathology of youth today. These boys and girls generally drop out of school at the age of 15 or 16 after a history of failure, of frustration, and frequently of bad behavior. Maladjusted to school, many of them are also maladjusted to work and family life, and make little progress toward responsible adulthood.

VALUES

Any conclusions about the present condition of youth must be based on an affirmation of values. The following seem most relevant:

1. There is value in a productive adult life as a worker, parent, and citizen. Adulthood should be started fairly early in life, but age 25 or 30 is not too late for a person who will lead a complex life. A high proportion of young people will live to be 65 or 70 and will have a 40-year adult career, even if they start as late as 25 or 30.

2. There is value in a self-directed and selfdefined life. In a complex modern society, a person with high ability is likely to require time to establish his identity and

to prepare himself to fill the roles he defines for himself.

3. There is value in adolescence as well as in adulthood. For many young people a long, slow adolescence is a period of great happiness. In an economy of abundance, there is no great social need for young people to cut short their adolescence in order to contribute to the economy.

4. There is value in growth toward adulthood. No one can be satisfied with stagnation during adolescence. Young people need assurance that they are growing up, even though growth is slow and complex.

5. There is value in physical sexual fulfilment, and this value is found most fully within marriage. Consequently, early marriage may very well be a part of adolescence rather than a mark of its termination for young people who need a long time to prepare for roles other than the family roles.

VALUES APPLIED

The following conclusions flow from the application of these values to the present-day situation of youth in the United States.

Educational preparation may be profitably accelerated for that small group who will need three or more years of study in a graduate or professional school. These young people might well enter college a year early or do work of college level in secondary school to save time for their later education.

Marriage should be approved at age 20 to 25 for those young people who will need to study until age 25 or 30. However, many of these young people can successfully sublimate their biological impulses and enrich their adolescent life and their adult life thereby.

The great majority of youth, who today complete secondary school and then go to work, suffer no difficulties because of the postponement of social adulthood for three to five years after they achieve biological adulthood. This period of growth into adulthood seems appropriate to them personally and desirable from the point of view of the welfare of society. During the period of adolescence, educators and religious leaders should seek to help this group become more selfdirected, more clear about their places and their goals in life.

There is a group of young people—8 to 10 percent of youth, more boys than girls—who find the pathway to adulthood blocked. They are failures in school and failures in the world of juvenile work. This is the group which represents a serious social problem for modern society. Juvenile delinquency is heavily concentrated in this group. School and society must somehow find a way to open the pathway to growth for them. The ordinary school and even the special school for maladjusted youth have failed to find the solution. The families of these boys and girls have failed them. This is a problem that requires radical efforts for its solution. •

The Domination of Graduate Schools

Let's Free Liberal-Arts Teaching

EARL J. McGRATH

In NEA Journal

THE institutions responsible for providing liberal education are falling down on the job. Furthermore, the question may be raised whether, without drastic reversals of policy, liberal education can be generally reestablished in the colleges and universities of the United States. The present shortcomings of liberal-arts colleges cannot be corrected until the coercive power of the graduate facilities over these institutions is exposed to public view and then ameliorated.

Today the supremacy of graduate education with its emphasis on research and the transmission of specialized knowledge has transformed and distorted the American academic community. The mores, the administrative organization, the rewards of academic life, the very tissue of the academic organization have been so altered that liberal-arts colleges have ceased to have a distinctive existence or mission. Worse, they are no longer free to determine the policies governing the education of their own students.

The graduate faculties are largely responsible for the present shortage of college teachers. But this has not been their sole adverse effect on liberal-arts colleges. By transforming liberal-arts colleges from institutions for general education into agencies for the initial vocational education of scholars, the graduate schools, in a measure, deny society the services which the colleges ought to perform. They produce college teachers prepared, not primarily for their chosen work, but rather for research activities of a limited character. Further, they consistently oppose, often with shocking success, the attempts of liberal-arts colleges to resume the time-honored function of providing a general education for youth, regardless of their vocational objectives. But, most important, they have splintered the corporate body which once was the liberal-arts college into small and often completely unrelated departmental units. They have thus transformed the unified college curriculum into an agglomeration of subjects typically assembled in meaningless patterns according to the whims of

Earl J. McGrath, former U. S. Commissioner of Education, is Executive Officer, Institute of Higher Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Reported from NEA Journal, *XLIX (April 1960), 26-28.*

students or (more commonly) of their departmentally loyal advisers.

No panacea exists for the deepening shortage of college teachers. If, however, graduate schools would now begin to make necessary changes in their policies and practices, they could considerably ameliorate a situation which otherwise will severely debilitate American life. The graduate schools should begin at once to provide programs for prospective teachers that are somewhat different from those for other graduate students who expect to make research their primary work and who have a demonstrable aptitude for and interest therein. They should take steps to broaden the education of future college teachers. Under present conditions, the customs, if not the rules and regulations, of graduate faculties normally confine the prospective college teacher to a severely limited range of learning and thus prevent his being educated for his future professional duties. The result of such learning is an individual inadequately prepared for the normal teaching obligations of a faculty member in a liberal-arts college and, regretably, a person often conditioned by his graduate experiences to view these duties as necessary evils endured for the privilege of teaching advanced courses and doing research.

The graduate school should require that future college teachers attend a seminar for at least one academic year, preferably the last in graduate school, to gain an understanding of the whole enterprise of higher education and the place of their own work in it. They should require that prospective teachers serve an apprenticeship in a college classroom under the supervision of an accomplished teacher before assuming sole responsibility for instruction.

Until the studies, the research experience, and the dissertation required by the graduate faculty are such as to enable many more students to extend their graduate experience beyond the boundaries of a single discipline, colleges cannot hope to obtain nearly enough of the kinds of teachers needed.

INSTRUCTION NEEDED

A mere stringing of the beads of unrelated courses in the natural sciences, the social sciences, or the humanities along a curriculum thread will, however, be little better preparation for the college teacher than the present piling up of blocks of specialized courses in a single discipline. What is required is instruction which causes the student to see and to understand the relations between the facts and theories of various subject matters and, thus, to gain a comprehensive knowledge of the structure of learning and the complex conditions of life. Scholarship in this case means knowing a subject broadly and being able to see the relationships and the philosophical significance of new knowledge as it is produced.

Proposals made here for the reform of graduate education for college teachers are neither radical nor new. From the beginning of graduate work in the United States, many of the ablest, most gifted research scholars have recognized the basic difference between the activities of research and those of college teaching. They were convinced that the education of college students would be increasingly neglected or damaged by the effects of the partial and misdirected purposes of graduate education. The fears of these prescient educational statesmen have been realized beyond their predictions.

No thoughtful person would deny the incalculable contribution of research to our national life. But the education of our people for the intelligent discharge of their responsibilities in all the manifold spheres of living can hardly be given a lower value. Yet it is the consensus of many thoughtful observers that the general education of citizens has been sacrificed to the training of research workers and the propagation of the specialized knowledge they produce.

Through the dominance of graduate education, the colleges of liberal arts have virtually lost their right of selfdetermination and their programs have become distorted and often aimless. If they can now be freed from such dominance, they can accomplish their desirable aims. Under the proper conditions of work and compensation, college faculty members could again dedicate themselves to undergraduate teaching. The internal conflicts among departmental interests, which have increasingly divided liberal education, would be resolved within the larger purpose of providing both general education for citizenship and special education for work. Concomitantly, graduate schools would be able to devote their efforts more effectively to the two equally demanding but somewhat different responsibilities of educating college teachers and training investigators.

The history of education has shown that when an established institution fails to satisfy an emerging social need, another agency either already in existence or newly established for the purpose fills the vacuum created by indifference or negligence. Whether those now responsible for the education of college teachers will have the understanding and the enterprise to meet the demands of the hour is a question only they can answer.

If the graduate schools do not deal expeditiously and understandingly with this problem, the teachers colleges will do so. •

HARDENING of the mind may be harder on a person than hardening of the arteries.—Frank Miles in *Midland Schools.*

If Your Nerves Aren't Jumpy, Enter

My Museum of Morbid English

ROBERT L. COARD

In The Journal of Higher Education

A COLLEGE registrar, chuckling heartily, pulled out a letter he had received from a prospective student, handed it to me, and triumphantly said, "Read that." Well, I had to admit that the letter wasn't very good, for it began with the salutation "Dear Sir, or Madame?" and went on to misspell *college* repeatedly as *collage*. But this registrar's naive belief that a teacher of freshman composition courses in college could be shocked by written blunders amused me greatly. One might as well try to startle a medical pathologist by showing him a corpse. That registrar ought to step inside my own Museum of Morbid English and examine the diseased specimens I've accumulated in a decade of reading freshman compositions.

If your nerves aren't jumpy, let's enter my Museum and begin the tour by inspecting the showcase labeled "Confused Words." You will come across this ambiguous specimen contributed by an exuberant 18-year-old boy: "Once I had a date and had to brake it." His offering is matched by that of a teen-age girl who argued that "capital punishment should not be used in the training of little children."

One teacher gleefully told me of a student who declared he was "taking a partition to the dean." Now I find the *partition-petition* mix-up rather old hat, though I do keep a few specimens in the Museum of Morbid English. I prefer one about the students who climbed a petition: " . . . the boys began sneaking into the room next to the library, which was set off by a petition about eight feet tall."

Robert L. Coard is a member of the faculty at the University of Alabama, University. Reported from The Journal of Higher Education, *XXXI (May 1960), 276-79.*

Although it carries such standard items, my Museum naturally takes greater pride in the more spectacular pathologies. For example, not every museum can boast of a *scholastic-socialistic* confusion. In a data sheet accompanying his letter of application, a student had a division entitled "Socialistic and Athletic Honors." I doubt if he could get a job these days!

I have, of course, a large collection called "Typewriter Betrayals," where *six* so often comes out *sex*, as in "There were sex cruisers in the Battle of Savo Island." But one can't be too harsh on "Typewriter Betrayals" of students. I remember eating for many months in a restaurant which featured on its menu a strange dish called "candid yams."

I have in my Museum a "Department of Mutilated Dates and Altered Statistics." Here I learn from a student that he "came to the University on Sept. 6, 195" and doesn't add whether this early arrival was A.D. or B.C. As with dates, so with statistics. If one student is correct, Napoleon may have lost to the Russians because he didn't bring along enough men: "Napoleon's army was made up of nearly 1100 soldiers."

Some startling examples are to be found in my "Strained Parts of Speech" division. The noun *satire* has slipped across the line in "Hawthorne in his story 'Earth Holocaust' satires Emerson's idea of books." And *defect* switches from a noun to a verb in this specimen: "Privilege to print any material greatly defected the magazine."

Word creation also is a talent of freshmen but seems not to be appreciated. For example, a student coins *writenly* so that he could say "orally and writenly."

Even a brief tour of the Museum of Morbid English should include a short halt at the "Verb-Virus" display, where strange and fascinating tense infections are on exhibit. A few specimens of verb disease gathered from underclassmen's prose will catch the eye of even the hurried observer: " . . . but Thoreau only teached for the money"; and "I believe that Melville based the book on this voyage as he seened it after 10 years."

As the visitor passes the spelling cases in the Museum, he will notice one labeled "Drastic Spelling Reform." Here the freshmen have seized on the silent letters of the English orthography and simply thrown them out, as in *tomaine*. Then there is a display called "Surplus Words." The freshman fondness for using the unnecessary word rises to great heights in the sentence "We realized she has married into poor poverty." The "Dangling Verbal" collection yields some rich varieties of morbidity. Here is one I cherish: "The hot chile and warmed up crackers really hit the spot after having sat at a football game over two hours."

I also have a "Manuscript Collection." In the showcases are to be found themes with slanting edges, scalloped edges, jagged edges, and edges as frilly as an old-fashioned valentine. The paper on which the themes are written also offers abundant variety. There is even a composition on "My Allergy" laboriously typed out on Kleenex!

If the teacher spends much of his time in the autumn and winter working in the Museum of Morbid English, as the instructor of freshmen necessarily does, he is indeed ready for the coming of spring, with its promise of golden vacation days. Or, as a student phrased it more picturesquely in connection with another matter " . . . there is one constellation, come spring and we'll thaw out"! •

To Measure General Knowledge

The Rearrangement Test

EDWARD E. CURETON

In Educational and Psychological Measurement

THE rearrangement test, sometimes also called the continuity test, is useful in measuring students' *general knowledge*. This is done when the student is asked to place in *order* any series of persons, objects, events, operations, or concepts which actually do have an order with respect to some attribute. An example from geography follows:

The 10 largest cities in the United States are listed below in alphabetical order. Write a 1 before the largest, a 2 before the next largest, etc., ending with a 10 before the smallest.

KEY			Difference
7	4	Boston	3
2	2	Chicago	0
5	8	Detroit	3
4	3	Los Angeles	1
10	5	New Orleans	5
1	1	New York	0
3	6	Philadelphia	3
9	7	Pittsburgh	2
8	10	San Francisco	2
6	9	St. Louis	3
		Sum	22

Score = 3 (from table)

There are many other uses for this type of test.

1. In history: arrange a series of persons or events in chronological order. In a comprehensive test the persons or events may be from different countries, continents, or cultures.

Edward E. Cureton is a member of the faculty at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Reported from Educational and Psychological Measurement, *XX (Spring 1960), 31–34.*

2. In art: arrange a series of pictures in order of artistic merit, either in general or in terms of some specific element such as color, symmetry, balance, etc.

3. In biology: arrange a series of particular plants or animals in the order of complexity of some characteristic.

4. In manual arts: arrange the operations of a job in the order in which they should be performed.

5. In English literature: arrange a series of incidents in the order in which they occur in a given work.

These examples are merely illustrative. A teacher of almost any subject will readily think of several others which apply to his field of instruction.

The main deterrent to the wider use of the rearrangement tests has been the difficulty of scoring. It is easily shown that the score cannot be the number of items for which the student's rank and the key rank agree. Consider a key order and the rankings of three students.

Key	Student A	Student B	Student C
1	2	6	2
2	1	2	1
3	3	3	4
4	4	4	3
5	5	5	6
6	6	1	5
No. Correct	4	4	0
Score	5	1	3

Student A has one interchange of two adjacent ranks, with four ranks correct. The error is so small that his score should be 5 (out of 6) rather than 4. Student B also has one interchange, with four ranks correct. But he has interchanged the highest rank with the lowest. This error is so large that his proper score is 1 rather than 4. Student C has interchanged ranks 1 and 2, 3 and 4, and 5 and 6, so that none of his ranks agree with the key ranks. But all three of his errors are small, and the three pairs of interchanged ranks are in the correct order. He should receive half credit (score 3) for this arrangement.

The score should be a function of the correlation between the key ranking and the student's ranking. It should be maximum (equal to the number of items ranked) when the agreement is perfect or almost perfect. It should be 0 whenever the agreement is random or worse. A scoring table could be built on either the Spearman or the Kendall rank correlation procedure, but in either case the preliminary work required of the scorer would be too great.

The accompanying scoring table is based on the Spearman Footrule. This is the simplest of all methods based entirely on considerations of agreement between two rank orders, and it is sufficiently sensitive and accurate for the present purpose. The directions are given at the bottom. The table covers rearrangements of any number of items from three to 10.

SCORING TABLE FOR THE
REARRANGEMENT TEST

Number of Items Ranked

Score	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
								1
9								
							1	5
8								
						1	5	9
7								
					1	3	7	11
6								
				1	3	7	11	15
5								
			1	3	5	9	13	19
4								
		1	3	5	9	11	17	21
3								
	1	1	5	7	11	15	19	25
2								
	1	3	5	9	13	17	23	29
1								
	3	5	7	11	15	19	25	31
0								

Directions: 1. Match the key against the examinee's answers. For each item, write the difference (without regard to sign) between the key rank and the examinee's rank. Add the differences and record the sum. Every such sum must be 0 or an **even** number.

2. In the column headed by the number of items ranked, find a horizontal line with a number smaller than the sum above it and a number larger than the sum below it. (The table contains only **odd** numbers, so no tabled number can equal a sum.) The number at the end of the line is the score.

3. If the sum is less than the figure at the top of the column, the score is the number of items ranked. If the sum is greater than the figure at the bottom of the column, the score is 0. •

Implications Derived from a Foreign Study

Instruction in Lower-Grade Arithmetic in England, Scotland — and the U. S.

WILLIAM A. BROWNELL

In The Arithmetic Teacher

THE first two weeks of June 1959, I spent in the publicly maintained schools of England and Scotland. My purpose was to see for myself what is being done in these schools in introducing children to arithmetic and in carrying them in this subject through the first four to six grades. Obviously, two weeks is much too short a time for a thoroughgoing "investigation." Nevertheless, two weeks were long enough to reveal certain facts and to raise certain questions that may be of interest to those who are concerned with arithmetic instruction in American schools.

It is probably important to start by making this comment: In American educational research, with its emphasis on large populations and its excessive reliance on the control-group technique, it frequently is forgotten that a single instance may be enough to establish something as a fact. In this present context, I am accepting as facts the things which I myself saw. Even if the particular "facts" had not been verified by observations in several places—in other words, even if what I saw had happened only once and in a single place—the phenomenons would still be valid and could justify the drawing of certain conclusions. My three conclusions, as I shall express them, will be stated in terms of their relevance to arithmetic instruction in the lower grades of American schools.

1. *We have seriously underestimated the attention span of school beginners.*

In American schools the primary-grade program (and not alone the part devoted to arithmetic) is based on the notion that beginners cannot remain interested in anything and keep their attention thereon for more than a relatively few minutes at a time—say 15, or 20, or 30 minutes.

In the English and Scottish schools I saw Infant School children working happily, busily, and effectively at number tasks throughout periods of an hour or more. It is hardly reasonable to suppose that

William A. Brownell is a member of the faculty at the University of California, Berkeley. Reported from The Arithmetic Teacher, *VII (April 1960), 165–77.*

in respect to attention span American children are inherently or biologically less well endowed than are British children. If it be granted that this hypothesis is untenable, then we should be able in American schools to duplicate—*if we wish*—the conditions that prevail in British schools and teach school beginners for longer periods of time.

THE READINESS QUESTION

2. *Likewise, we have seriously underrated the "readiness" of school beginners for systematic work in arithmetic.*

Even though we hear it less commonly than we did a few years ago, we are still being told by some that school beginners are "unready" for arithmetic—that they don't need arithmetic and are incapable of learning it because of its difficulty. It is not to our credit that so many have believed these statements and have acquiesced in the postponement of systematic instruction to grade 2, or even later.

In the English and Scottish schools there has never been much doubt about the "readiness" of children for systematic instruction, and not at age six and a half or eight or later, but at age five. What I myself witnessed convinced me that the view of "readiness" entertained by the British is entirely realisic. It is to be supposed that American school beginners are as "ready" for arithmetic as are Scottish and English children and that we can act accordingly *if we wish.*

3. *We can safely ask children in the lower grades to learn much more in arithmetic than we are now asking them to learn.*

Because of the drift away from arithmetic in the lower grades characteristic of American school curriculums some years ago, we have been slow to build up a challenging program in the first three or four grades. Why try to do so when no one would "buy" such a "stiff" program? Accordingly, the pace of instruction has lagged, and reteaching has exceeded any reasonable limits of necessity. Fearing that arithmetic may be "too hard" for children in the first two grades, for example, we have been satisfied when, in two years, they have some degree of mastery of the addition and subtraction facts to, say, 12 or 15. We have done little, if anything, about developing ideas about the processes of multiplication and division, to say nothing of teaching some of the simple number facts in these processes. Despite evidence that school beginners already know much about fractions, we have done little or nothing to extend their understanding of basic concepts, and have avoided even the simplest computation with fractions (e.g., the addition and subtraction of like fractions). Indeed, computation, even with whole numbers, has been pretty much tabooed.

Meanwhile, teachers in England and Scotland, whether following experimental or nonexperimental programs, have gone ahead teaching things in arithmetic which we in

America *know* young children cannot learn! From what I observed in British schools, I am convinced that we can teach more arithmetic than we now teach in the first few grades, and teach it faster, *if we wish* to do so.

Other criterions than ability to learn must, of course, be taken into account. Demonstrated ability to learn something does not mean that we *must* teach it. Recognition of this fact is the reason why in each of the foregoing three numbered sections the phrase "if we wish" was included as a necessary caution. True, English and Scottish children in the first grades are learning more arithmetic than are American children; it does not follow that American children must on that account be confronted with more demanding tasks and sooner. Before a decision can be made in this matter, answers have to be found for several critical questions, of which I shall raise three.

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE

1. *How important is arithmetic in the elementary curriculum?*

When in this country elementary teachers must teach not only arithmetic but also reading, spelling, writing, oral and written composition, social studies, science, art, and music, how much time can be given to arithmetic? Is 30 minutes a day in grade 3, for example, as far as we can go? In the British schools I visited, this time was greatly exceeded—doubled and even tripled. In these schools, quite obviously, arithmetic was given top priority among all the subjects in the elementary curriculum.

There is no question here about the value of arithmetic. The question is, rather, the relative importance of arithmetic. This question is not to be answered by you or by me, or by mathematicians, or by any group of persons viewed as having vested interests. Nor is it answerable by traditional kinds of quantitative research. It involves values, and so, the exercise of judgment, and the judgment of many people. If the decision is that we are now putting as much emphasis as we should on arithmetic, then the time allocation will remain about what it is, and our only hope is the more effective use of the time we have. We can accomplish something in these circumstances, but we could accomplish more if we had more time. It is my belief that we shall be given additional time; but we are more likely to get that extra time if we stress the importance of arithmetic rather than the unsatisfactory results of our present efforts.

CONFLICTING DOCTRINES

2. *Should we, or should we not, undertake to develop in young children the mature kinds of mathematical skills and relationships which I saw being taught in some of the British experimental schools I visited?*

To make this question more concrete, should we, or should we not, try to teach eight-year-olds how to simplify such expressions as $X^2 + 6X + 8 = ?$ Americans objecting to teaching mathematical ideas and skills of this kind would probably represent the Doctrine of Social Utility. ("Is it demonstrably useful?") The Englishmen and Scots would be little disturbed about such ideas and skills being, or not being, practically useful and would argue for them in language suggestive of a firm faith in the Discipline of Formal Discipline—"They train the power of reasoning and the faculty of concentration."

These two positions have been deliberately worded in their extreme form. While they represent conflicting positions we can capitalize on what is valuable in each. Some such reconciliation must be worked out if we are to make any progress in determining just what mathematical ideas and skills commonly taught in the later grades can be moved to lower grades and what ideas and skills not generally included in school arithmetic should be introduced into the program. Enough of the negative aspect of the Doctrine of Social Utility can be retained to prevent upheavals in the arithmetic program, at the same time that we prepare ourselves to accept and welcome a more moderate array of changes that will stress the mathematics of arithmetic more than has been customary.

NEW METHODS NEEDED?

3. *In order to achieve what we may desire by way of a changed arithmetic program, to what extent need we substitute radically new materials and methods for those in common use?*

I saw some very unusual accomplishments of certain classes of very young children in English and Scottish schools. These classes were taught with new materials and methods. The inference might be that the out-of-the-ordinary performances of the pupils observed are to be attributed wholly to these materials and methods. This is not the case, however. These experimental classes were taught for longer periods by teachers fired with enthusiasm for change. And these teachers were seeking goals unlike those of the nonexperimental teachers.

I am certainly advocating no policy of complacency in saying the emerging arithmetic program will call for no wholesale abandonment of materials and methods now in general use. Of course, some changes are inevitable and will prove to be desirable; but they need not be revolutionary. At any rate, the first step is not to adopt a radically new system, however good. The first step *is* to decide on objectives of instruction and probably on the amount of time to be given arithmetic. Then, and only then, is it appropriate to consider changes in materials and methods. It is my judgment that currently popular systems, when modified in certain respects, will be found wholly adequate for the new arithmetic.

●

Latin-American Life: A Proposal for Junior-High and Senior-High Schools

JAMES HIGH

In Social Education

James High is Assistant Professor of Social Sciences at the University of California, Santa Barbara. Reported from Social Education, *XXIV (May 1960), 207-8.*

WE are likely to refer to St. Augustine as the oldest city in America. There are, however, a hundred older ones still in existence. All the really old homes built by Europeans in America—that is, all the sixteenth-century homes—are in Latin America, in the Caribbean Islands, in Mexico, Panama, Bogata, Asuncion, Santiago, Bahia—and not in Jamestown or Boston or Philadelphia or Charleston. In 1800, a quarter of a century after the American Revolution, 10 of the 12 largest cities in the Western Hemisphere were in Latin America.

These interesting and surprising facts represent a sample of what may be learned about our important southern neighbors. It is unfortunate that many books on Latin America give little attention to an objective and scientific examination of the more than four centuries of Latin culture as it has flowered in the New World. It is often the case that textbooks and courses in Latin-American history emphasize the Spanish colonial period with a distorted sense of Anglo-Saxon justice — spurious moralization concerning the cruelty and barbarity of the conquistadores. Cortez and Pizarro are most often depicted as brutal and vicious exploiters of a noble race which was unfortunate enough to have an ancestral store of riches to be plundered. Here the story usually departs from all objectivity, or it stops altogether, in an extended requiem for the departed glories of the Inca, apostles of peace, and the Aztec, nature's most noble refinement. Next, most attention is usually given to the sad plight of the modern underfed, exploited, and downtrodden peasant population of South and Central America.

It is the purpose of education to encourage students to learn facts and relationships in view of their need to make wise choices and decisions. Practically applied in the case of Latin America, every United States citizen should be able and willing to further the aims of cooperation and understanding among all the peoples of the Western Hemisphere. In order to do this, it is indispensable that all Americans learn what they can—

and as objectively as they can—about each other.

First of all, it is necessary to sweep away the sins of omission and obfuscation concerning knowledge of the score of independent nations south of the Rio Grande. This is a time to cultivate knowledge of Latin America in a balanced perspective and in a spirit of good will toward all Americans. It is the only hope for a very much needed solidarity in the present-day New World when alignments are daily being made to undermine the strength and effectiveness of American democracy and economic policy. For reasons of practical politics, general cultural cooperation, economic selfinterest, and plain decency, Americans should—and can—learn in school something about their Latin friends—while they are still friends.

Elementary-school placement of certain Latin-American topics has been common for some time, especially concerning Mexico. In junior-high school there is often some treatment of Latin America, sometimes in conjunction with the rest of the neighboring parts of the Western Hemisphere. Such topics often appear in the seventh grade and are usually combination efforts in geography, history, and social customs. Less frequently, Latin-American history or geography will be taught in a higher grade, from 9 to 12, or as a part of a lower-division college course in the history of the Americas. There is no reason why Latin-American history and geography cannot be an elective course at any of these levels. In line with the philosophy of social studies generally accepted in the United States, any grade in the secondary complex could well be supplemented in this way for students who wish to enhance their minimum requirements or who are in some kind of accelerated program and need more elective courses in social studies.

In teaching Latin-American appreciation in secondary school, the most important asset the teacher might have, after mastery of the subject, is an attitude of objectivity and sympathy toward learning the facts and relationships of this vast and diverse population stemming from Latin and Indian origins. The area is more than twice as large as the United States and the population is roughly equal to that of Anglo-America. Possibly the best way to approach such an objective is through a biographical examination of figures who have contributed during the past four centuries to the establishment and development of the 20 nations now existing there.

Certain high points, as in all cultures, have been reached in the course of Latin-American growth, and a balanced selection from these, as represented in the lives of outstanding personages, will give a vital framework to any series of discussions about the important episodes. Woven into this fabric are the threads of geography, ethnology, politics, and economics. •

When to "Step Out" and When to "Step In"

Levels of Discussion in Reading

NILA BANTON SMITH

In Education

READING content is one of the most productive mediums to use in developing thinking abilities through discussion. Are we making the fullest use of this medium for this purpose? Are we conducting discussions at a level which is too low, in many instances, to stimulate real thinking on the part of boys and girls? Are we, too often, simply asking them to repeat, parrot-like, what is said in the book rather than guiding discussion in ways which will encourage them to probe for deeper meanings and to evaluate critically?

Let me present an example to illustrate guidance directed toward literal comprehension—the lowest rung of the ladder of discussion possibilities insofar as stimulation of thinking is concerned:

The children are reading a story about two children and their toys. "With what was Ann playing?" asks the teacher. "Ann was playing with her doll," comes the answer. And this statement is given in so many words in the text.

Questions of this type require only slight mental activity on the part of the teacher and little or no thinking on the part of the pupils. Such questions undoubtedly give children practice in recalling and reproducing statements or facts and have a place in detailed factual reading. It is doubtful, on the other hand, whether this form of questioning helps children to develop the ability to glean the types of meanings from reading that they need to enrich their lives to the fullest extent.

Children often become so glib in answering this reproduction type of question that they may convey the impression of having achieved a high degree of excellence in "comprehension." Consider the case of Larry—a 13-year-old boy who recently was sent to the writer for diagnosis. He had above-average intelligence and was considered a "very good reader," but he was failing in other studies. As a part of the diagnosis, the boy was asked to read the story of Johnny Appleseed. A class of graduate students observed and read the story also. When Larry had finished, he was asked several questions which could be answered by restating what had been said directly in the text:

Nila Banton Smith is Director, Reading Institute, New York University, New York City. Reported from Education, *LXXX (May 1960), 518–21*

"How long ago did Johnny Appleseed live?"

"More than a hundred years ago."

"What was his real name?"

"Jonathan Chapman."

"How did he spend his time?"

"He planted apple trees."

These and additional questions of the reproduction type were asked, and Larry answered all of them unerringly in the words of the book.

"Do you think Larry needs help in comprehension?" the graduate class was asked.

"No," came the unanimous response, "his comprehension is perfect!"

Larry had been checked on his literal comprehension, but the discussion had been extremely limited. What happened when he was asked some questions at a higher level of comprehension—in other words, questions which called for interpretation of meanings not stated directly in the text?

"Why did Johnny choose to plant his trees deep in the wilderness where the settlers had not yet come?"

"He wanted to be alone while he was working," Larry replied.

Larry had missed an important implication in drawing this conclusion. Johnny's real reason for planting trees before the settlers arrived was, of course, so that the trees would grow and bear fruit by the time the settlers moved in. Larry's reason made Johnny an unsocial person who didn't want anyone around him while he was working.

Several other questions of the thinking type were asked. Larry's replies to all of them were equally faulty.

Larry is only one out of hundreds of intelligent pupils who learn the superficial knack of giving back what the text says, but who never tap the significance of meanings which can be gleaned only through the use of mental processes of a higher type.

One of the most productive ways of developing ability to derive meanings in reading is through discussion in which the teacher makes a special contribution by throwing in questions here and there, questions which stimulate cause-and-effect reasoning and which point up the necessity for making comparisons, drawing inferences, arriving at conclusions, and gathering generalizations. With the wise teacher's help, deeper meanings emerge from the printed page, and the real significance of the printed symbols becomes fully apparent.

Critical reading is another aspect of the reading-for-meanings area of development—an aspect which requires carefully guided discussion. Critical reading makes use of both literal comprehension and interpretation. It involves both getting the facts and interpreting deeper meanings. In addition, it calls for the personal judgment of the reader in deciding on the validity of the material.

In critical reading, the reader evaluates and passes judgment on the purpose, the fairmindedness, the bias, and the truthfulness of statements made in the text. Here is a simple but very satisfying example of what we mean.

Tommy, a second-grader, was reading these statements in some arithmetic material that he was given:

"Nancy went to the store to get some milk. Milk was 12 cents a quart. She got two quarts. How much did she pay for it?"

Tommy stopped short. "There's something wrong here," he said. "Milk costs more than 12 cents. I paid 21 cents for a quart at our store yesterday."

Tommy was doing some critical reading. It is a skill on which much more emphasis should be placed, especially in this age when so many attempts are being made to influence our thinking through the use of printed material. Youth should be taught to look for slants and biases and tricks of propagandists so that they will be in a position to judge the validity of statements which they read in all printed material.

In the primary grades, we need to rely largely on guided discussions of books children use in the classroom. However, more direct work can be done in the upper grades not only with books used in the classroom but also with materials brought in from the outside. Children can bring to class newspapers from different publishers. They can compare several reports of the same event and note the variations. The teacher can encourage spirited discussion as the children pick out statements which they think are the facts. The same procedure can be used with magazine articles, pamphlets, books, an advertisement, or an excerpt from a speech made during a political campaign. There should be free discussion concerning the writer's motive and the techniques that he used to accomplish his purpose.

We have intended here to emphasize the urgency of developing children's ability to enter into mental action and reaction with meanings embedded in printed symbols, both those that are immediately apparent and those that lurk between the lines of type. Further, we have tried to point out that on-the-spot discussion, guided by a skillful teacher, is probably one of the best mediums which can be used for the purpose. The teacher, however, must prepare carefully for any discussion. She must be ready with sagacious questions and remarks; ready to follow and guide discussions into worthwhile channels; ready to "step out" when the children are taking over in ways that are truly conducive to growth in their thinking processes; and ready to "step in" when a question will stimulate further mental activity or when a remark will afford subtle guidance in arriving at a sound judgment.

Discussion of reading content under such conditions well may result in the fullest realization of Edward Thorndike's terse but significant definition of some years back: "Reading is thinking." •

Modest Goals for Slow-Learners

The Mentally Handicapped Child in High School

MORRIS SALARIO
In Chicago Schools Journal

WHAT happens to the educable mentally handicapped (EMH) children who have reached high-school age chronologically but who are not, of course, able to do high-school work?

For such children, the Chicago Public Schools operate 17 special classes in 12 high-school buildings. The objectives of this EMH secondary-school program are to assist these children in acquiring social adequacy and occupational competency. By the former is meant the ability to get along in the community without supervision, by the latter the ability to hold a job and support themselves.

To be admitted to these special high-school programs, the EMH pupil in the elementary school must meet requirements other than appropriate chronological age. He must have an intelligence quotient of 65 or higher as measured by a recent test and must have attained at least fourth-grade competency in both reading and arithmetic. In addition, he must possess personal and social qualities which indicate a probability that he can adjust to a high-school program.

Before he is enrolled, a parent conference is arranged. This is planned to help the parent and student understand thoroughly the opportunities and benefits as well as the limitations of the EMH secondary-school program.

Morris Salario teaches in the Educable Mentally Handicapped (EMH) Program at Crane High School, Chicago, Illinois. Reported from Chicago Schools Journal, *XLI (March 1960), 262–66.*

EMH divisions at the secondary level contain from 20 to 25 students each who range in age from 15 to 17 years. Each group has its own classroom and division teacher. When they enter, these boys and girls are required to complete the same office records and program cards as all other high-school students. They are given the same kind of grade books, the same identification cards, and the same football and basketball schedules. They are listed in the regular school absence bulletin and are included in the student council proceedings and in all school assembly programs. They are free to participate in any school club or team according to their interests and abilities.

By the same token EMH students must abide by the general rules of the school.

These EMH students are expected to study and to complete all assignments on time and to the best of their abilities. Their division teacher is responsible for teaching them five major subjects as well as giving them individual guidance and counseling. The major subjects involve areas of the language arts, consumer mathematics, occupational education, practical science, and social studies. These subjects are taught during two double periods and one single period in the student's nine-period program.

For the other four periods, the EMH students are programmed to other teachers and classrooms throughout the school where they are integrated with the regular boys and girls of the high school. These classes include wood shop or auto shop for the boys, and foods and clothing for the girls as well as classes in library, music, art, and physical education—athletics, swimming, dancing, and health. The EMH students are also integrated with normal high-school boys and girls during lunch periods.

As a result of this integration and because of the relative impersonality of a large high school, there is no problem of relationships with the regular students. In the music class or shop class, an EMH student is just another student. The EMH student is, however, aware of his own deficiencies and it is this awareness which must be compensated for to create a sense of belonging.

A SPECIAL PROGRAM

It has been wisely stated that the EMH secondary program is a *special* program involving students who have *special* needs and require a *special* education and that the traditional framework of the school's grade and course structures are only followed because it has been found that radical and conspicuous segregation is the worst possible treatment for EMH boys and girls at the high-school level. Every means is taken to help each of these children develop his fullest potential and to develop an awareness of his capabilities and limitations so that he will be able to face life realistically and enjoy his achievements fully.

When he is taught reading, letter writing, oral conversation, budgeting, art, music, health, change making, bill itemizing, and meal planning, it is with the object of helping him to care for his own needs in society and to contribute to his family and community. But the real core of this teaching is the teacher's desire, through an understanding of each student's emotional needs, to help an EMH boy or girl blossom into a real person, slow-learning though he may be.

Such skills as were mentioned above are taught through the use of units of work so designed as to incorporate one or more skills into a practical and complete life situation. Naturally, patience and considerable repetition and drill are necessary. The degree of success attained seems definitely to be linked to the degree to which the skills are clearly applicable to the students' interests, needs, and patterns of daily living.

Insofar as parallels can be established, the work in language and arithmetic is generally of fifth- or sixth-grade difficulty, although some of the activities defy "grade placement" because they involve work tailored to the peculiar needs of the group. Selection of textbooks is difficult because most of those on their reading level are intended for elementary-school-age children. EMH girls and boys need materials they can read; but they also need materials of interest to adolescents. They are ashamed to carry and study books designed for younger children.

Standardized mathematics and reading tests are administered at the completion of each semester and students are given grades for each course in the regular manner. The EMH teacher evaluates their achievement largely in terms of abilities. Hence the marks they receive tend to be "good" grades. The grades received for regular classes are generally low. As a rule those working up to their abilities in the special classes also receive the better grades in their regular work. They are also rated for traits and behavior in the usual fashion.

After the student's achievement is evaluated, the teacher may make recommendation that the student be separated from the EMH program and be enrolled in regular classes. At Crane High School about four students each semester show sufficient progress and are permitted to follow the regular school program. As yet no individual so placed has ever gone on to be graduated in the usual fashion. About half of the group sent into the regular program complete one semester's work and go on to a second semester. The other half leave school.

On the other hand, if the student's achievement is not significant, he continues in the EMH program where emphasis is directed toward development of occupational and social competency. There is a regular avenue of communication between the teacher and the employment office for this purpose. Those who remain in the EMH program until regular school-leaving age are given an unofficial certificate of completion. If a student's achievement indicates inability to adjust, or if a student's record indicates a lack of interest or deliberate truancy, the student is dropped from the program or sent to continuation school.

In a program such as this, the goals must obviously be modest ones. They are nonetheless worthwhile. Given the limited potential of our students, we feel that we have been quite successful in achieving the goals we set. •

The Hearing-and-Speaking-Only Phase

Teaching Modern Foreign Languages without a Book

PATRICIA O'CONNOR

In Modern Foreign Languages in High Schools: Pre-reading Instruction

EVERYONE now recognizes that a language—any language—consists of a set of habits. We know that our ability to understand and use our native language is simply the possession of the specific set of habits which characterize English. This fact about language in general has its corollary in foreign-language study and teaching. If the foreign language is to be usable, it must consist of a set of habits which are as deep as the opportunities for practice allow.

We all recognize, also, that when a youngster begins the study of a foreign language in secondary school, his learning cannot follow the slow, natural processes by which he learned his native language in childhood. There is not enough time. Nor could any school situation duplicate the opportunities for constant practice and correction which the child-learner receives from his parents, his older brothers and sisters, and his playmates. We do know, however, that the essential steps of language learning must be the same. Foreign-language habits, like those of the native language, are formed through practice, correction, and more practice.

Patricia O'Connor is Consultant for Foreign Languages in the U. S. Office of Education. Reported from Modern Foreign Languages in High School: Pre-reading Instruction, *OE-27000, Bulletin 1960, No. 9, U. S. Office of Education, 1-7.*

Steps are being taken to provide foreign-language students with opportunities for this necessary practice. New texts and teaching materials are being designed to include more oral work with the basic language patterns, and an increasing number of secondary schools are installing language-laboratory facilities which will multiply each individual student's chances for guided practice in hearing and speaking.

Along with all our growing understanding of the nature of foreign-language learning, there is another development which is having an immediate effect on foreign-language teaching in the secondary school. A change is taking place in the planning of the first-year foreign-language course.

Many teachers of beginning classes are planning for a pre-reading, exclusively aural-oral period of instruction before they begin work with the regular textbook. During this pre-textbook phase, the teachers are attempting to develop in their pupils reliable, correct, firmly practical habits of hearing and speaking with a *very limited* portion of the foreign language as a secure foundation for their later more rapid progress. "Very limited" refers to the strict limitation of the number of different items of foreign-language structure and vocabulary introduced during this aural-oral phase. There would, of course, be complete coverage of the sound system.

Quite apart from theoretical arguments based on the nature of language, the pedagogical advantages to be derived from a hearing-and-speaking-only phase of the beginning course are obvious.

ADVANTAGES

1. A basic phrase or sentence can be imitated and repeated orally far more often than in writing. So can its variations. Under a teacher's immediate guidance, an entire class of several dozen pupils can imitate, repeat, and vary a basic model many times.

2. Oral classroom practice permits immediate correction of errors. Any mistake (that is, any beginning of a bad habit) can be corrected at once in oral practice and the appropriate desired habit immediately substituted. In written practice, the best the teacher can do is to put a red mark alongside the mistake after it has been made. The pupil's correction of his bad-habit performance comes hours or days after the error itself.

To these advantages can be added another important consideration. This initial period of instruction often will establish the pupils' attitudes toward the new language. It is of great value that our students should early come to view the foreign language as communication, as something to be used rather as something to be studied about, or as a code to be deciphered.

Some teachers have hesitated to try an extended period of exclusively aural-oral instruction because they distrust their own conversational fluency in the foreign language. This notion that only a teacher with a wide range of conversational fluency can successfully conduct such instruction is a mistaken one. These new language habits require very intensive well-planned practice on a limited body of vocabulary and sentence patterns, and, of course, complete fluency and total accuracy within the limits of this planned material are necessary. But the teacher need not—and in the initial stages he should not—use any additional foreign-language materials in his pupils' hearing.

What, exactly, *is* the classroom teacher's role in the early development of his pupils' new foreign-language habits? He has three key functions: a model for the pupils' imitation; judge of the pupils' accuracy; and manager, stage director, and orchestra conductor of the oral practice.

Audio aids are now recognized as an essential part of the foreign-language classroom equipment. No combination of equipment, however, can replace the teacher. But what can the machine do in the foreign-language classroom that the teacher cannot do?

1. The machine provides a consistent model. It can reproduce a sentence for imitation in precisely the same form over and over again. The machine never gets tired.

2. Recordings can provide a variety of voices—those of men and women, children and adults—for the students' recognition and imitation. These recordings inspire confidence because unquestionably they are genuine foreign language.

3. By taking over part of the burden of supplying sufficient repetitions to provide ample listening experience, the machine can free the teacher for the important job of noting the progress of individual pupils and determining points of difficulty which will require additional practice.

The recording as a model for the pupils' imitation, however, has certain limitations which should be recognized. Particularly in the early weeks of the beginning foreign-language course, the live voice is still an almost indispensable first model. Since the recording has no face, it can provide neither the important facial gestures and postures which accompany speech nor the help via lip reading which all of us, consciously or unconsciously, practice.

The question always arises concerning the extent to which English may be used in the beginning foreign-language course. Many teachers feel that with the possible exception of the first few class meetings only the foreign language should be spoken. Others believe that English should be used by the teacher whenever he considers it necessary. While they agree that the foreign language should be used as much as possible they believe that the teacher's judicious use of English can assure a more efficient use of class time and thus allow for more active language practice by the pupils. Some teachers prefer to organize the classwork in such a way that the first or last few minutes of each period can be saved for questions and explanations in English. There is general agreement that the interweaving of English and the foreign language—the use of English in a foreign-language sentence, for example—should be avoided. •

How to Translate Educational Writing

There was harmony between teacher and pupils, an expression of mutual feelings on many levels: The students were confused by his questions and he was bewildered by their answers.—Murray Bromberg in *High Points.*

★ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Political Pledges. – Pledges, promises, and purple prose dominate the 1960 platforms of the Democratic and Republican parties –but there are some hard facts to be read in each political statement.

Both platforms devote an inordinate number of words to issues in which educators have an interest. Interspersed among the purple prose are definite commitments.

From the Democrats: Aid for school construction and teacher salaries. A start toward integration by 1963 in every school system affected by the U. S. Supreme Court decision.

From the Republicans: Aid for school construction, yes; for teacher salaries, no. An immediate start toward integration–"no pretense of target dates . . . no moratoriums . . . no postponing until 1963 . . ."

With these explosive questions out of the way, the platform writers then promise support for the following educational aims or projects:

Pledge the Democrats: support for student loans and scholarships; for vocational retraining of youths and adults who lose their jobs because of automation; for college housing; and for basic research.

Pledge the Republicans: support for student loans and graduate fellowships; for library facilities; for college housing; and for basic research.

Both platforms refer to education as the right, or "birthright," of every American child. Both refer to it as a great public investment. But there is a fundamental difference in the thinking of the platform writers.

The Republican platform writers use several hundred words to stress that education is still essentially a local and state responsibility. "The federal government should assist selectively in strengthening education," say the Republicans. And although the word *selectively* is not underscored in the printed versions of the platform, it is evident that it is underscored in the thinking and speaking of the Republican policy-makers.

There is no such limiting factor in the Democratic platform. "The new Democratic Administration will end eight years of official neglect of our educational system," say the platform writers, and they promise "strong and inventive leadership of the President of the United States" on behalf of education.

Brave Talk.–Congress reconvened on August 8 to the accompaniment of brave talk by some of its members that the short, post-political-convention session would do what the longer, regular session failed to do. They predicted the final enactment of a federal-aid-to-education measure and its submission to the President.

It was brave talk because the formidable obstacle of the House Rules Committee was still in the way of a federal-aid bill. On the other hand, most of the legislative work on the measure had been completed. The Senate had passed its version of the bill as far back as February 4; the House acted favorably on its bill on May 26. The difficulty was that the two measures differed sharply. The Senate had approved a liberal piece of legislation, authorizing aid for both school construction and teacher salaries, and giving state educational authorities freedom of choice to use the money for either purpose as they saw fit. The House, however, restricted aid to school construction.

Some observers had assumed that the differences could be ironed out in a routine conference between the two houses. But such a conference was blocked on June 9, when Representatives James C. Davis (D., Ga.) and August E. Johansen (R., Mich.) rose almost simultaneously from their seats and declared, "I object." This dramatic moment was a blow for friends of federal aid to education. But a second, equally stunning blow was in the offing. On June 22, the House Rules Committee gave its opinion of the floor objection by voting five to seven to deny the House the right to enter into conference with the Senate on a compromise measure.

Only the extraordinary decision to recess the Congress in July and reconvene it after the political conventions kept the federal-aid measure alive in 1960.

The peremptory action of the House Rules Committee led to angry charges by Representative Frank Thompson (D., N.J.) that "a little group of willful men are running roughshod over the will of the majority in Congress." Later came predictions that the powers of the Rules Committee would be sharply cut, either during the bobtail session in August or when a new Congress starts in January.

Project Talent.—Statisticians in Washington are now interpreting data intended to show what 500,000 American boys and girls know, how well they can think, and what their dreams and plans are for the future.

The facts are in the hands of Project Talent. This is the name of a group of researchers headed by John C. Flanagan, who is also head of the American Institute for Research.

Project Talent has undertaken what has been called the most ambitious inventory of human talent ever attempted by any nation. It is anticipated that work of the Project will provide a sound basis for early identification, better development, and greater utilization of human talents. Money for the research, which started in April 1959, came from the U. S. Office of Education, the National Institute of Mental Health, and the Office of Naval Research.

The scope of the Project is impressive. Close to 500,000 students attending the 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th grades in 1,357 schools were asked to take a series of tests lasting two days. Most of the testing took place during the months of March and April of this year. The tests were designed to measure the pupils' fund of general information and their abilities in reading, writing, mathematics, reasoning, and problem-solving. In addition, students were asked to fill out inventory sheets about their backgrounds, interests, and day-to-day activities, and to write brief themes on "My Views about an Ideal Occupation" and "What High School Means to Me." Close to one billion items of information have been recorded and fed into high-speed computers.

To get a picture of the schools involved in the study, Project researchers had principals fill out a questionnaire on school characteristics, and asked school counselors to describe the guidance programs serving the 500,000 students.

What will the researchers do with the findings?

1. They will send to each participating school the scores made by its own students. Scores for individual students will not be published or made available to anyone other than the principal and counselor of the school. Scores are to be used for counseling purposes.

2. Project researchers will also summarize the information to give the nation an idea of the potential talents and abilities of its youth, and the adequacy of the schools in serving them. A series of "Project Talent Reports" are to be published during 1960 and 1961.

3. Researchers also plan to use the findings as a basis for one-, five-, 10-, and 20-year studies. In other words, questionnaires will go out to samples of the youth in 1961, 1965, 1970, and 1980 in an effort to find out how well the education of this decade has prepared them for life two decades hence.

NDEA Progress Report.—The National Defense Education Act marks its second birthday this month.

Once again, the statisticians are at work summing up the results. Below is an eclectic summary of achievements which avoids figures as much as possible.

Loans to college students: Instead of drying up other sources of student loans, as some had predicted, the Student Loan Program has stimulated nonfederal loan activity. Colleges and state legislatures alike have increased their loan funds.

Strengthening instruction in foreign languages: Before the NDEA, a language laboratory in an American high school was a rarity. Today, more than 500 schools have such facilities.

Strengthening science instruction: As an example of progress, from 90 to 95 percent of the school districts in six states are taking part in projects designed to improve the teaching of science. (The states: Kentucky, Louisiana, Ohio, Oregon, Washington, and West Virginia.)

Strengthening mathematics instruction: NDEA projects "are creating a ferment in mathematics education."

Fellowships: The National Defense Fellowships are shortening the time taken by graduate students to complete their study. Up to the present time, the average graduate student required about seven years to earn his doctorate. Today NDEA fellowships assure the student three years of full support for full-time study. The result is that the average candidate for the Ph.D. holding an NDEA fellowship will be able to complete his work in four years or less.

Improvement of counseling: State departments of education have added new supervisory guidance workers. Local schools have added large numbers of new counselors to their staffs. School systems are making greater use of machine-scoring services in testing, relieving teachers and others of long hours of drudgery. Workshops and institutes help teachers and counselors become more skilled in the difficult art of counseling.

New educational media: NDEA funds are helping pay for three types of research projects: (1) those designed to help the classroom teacher make greater use of television; (2) those designed to find out how teaching machines can be used to best advantage; (3) those designed to test the effectiveness of tapes, television, radio, and traditional teaching aids.

Technical education: The NDEA is awakening vocational educators to the fact that industry and government need thousands of highly skilled technicians. Such technicians can be trained only with new types of curriculums, new types of facilities, and new types of teachers.

Improvement of statistical services: Some examples of improvement can be found in Georgia, which has revised its entire statistics-gathering machinery; in Massachusetts, which now produces in three days a statistical report which previously required 90 days; in Mississippi and Oklahoma, which are converting their statistical work from manual to machine operations.

During the first two years of the NDEA, Congress appropriated for defense education purposes $275,000,000. Because there is a general feeling in Washington that the Act has been a success, Congress may well be as generous, or more so, with its financial support during the remaining two years of the Act's life. And there is already some agitation in Washington to continue the program beyond the original four years authorized in 1958. Those who want to see the Act continued have been stressing a single point: The effect of the NDEA has been to strengthen, rather than weaken, the state organizations responsible for education. •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Bridgeport, Conn.: **Joseph B. Porter,** formerly superintendent at Watertown, Conn., is now superintendent, succeeding **Augusta Mendel,** retired.

Evansville, Ind.: **Herbert Erdmann,** formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded **Ralph Becker,** who resigned to become regional representative of the U. S. Office of Education in Kansas City, Mo.

Newton, Mass.: **Charles E. Brown,** formerly assistant superintendent, is successor to **E. N. Dennard,** now superintendent at Tyler, Tex.

Atlanta, Ga.: **John W. Letson,** formerly superintendent at Chattanooga, Tenn., has succeeded **Ira Jarrell,** retired.

Stillwater, Okla.: **W. D. Carr,** formerly superintendent at Cushing, Okla., is successor to **R. R. Russell.**

Youngstown, Ohio: **J. Harry Wanamaker,** acting superintendent since the death of **J. Fred Essig** in February, has been appointed superintendent.

Long Branch, N. J.: **William H. Meskill,** high-school principal, has been named successor to **Harmon M. Bradford,** retired.

New York, N. Y.: **Jacob Greenburg,** deputy superintendent, has retired after 50 years' service in New York City school system.

LaCrosse, Wis.: **Conan S. Edwards,** formerly assistant superintendent at West Allis, Wis., has succeeded **Arthur F. Jordan,** resigned.

North Tonawanda, N. Y.: **Maurice E. Friot,** formerly assistant superintendent, is successor to **Richard A. Jensen,** retired.

Covington, Ky.: **Glenn O. Swing,** superintendent for 33 years, has retired.

Logansport, Ind.: **Carl Zimmerman,** formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded **Charles Sharp,** now head of a government school in Teheran, Iran.

Aberdeen, Wash.: **Murray Taylor,** formerly of Burlington, Wash., is now superintendent.

Arcadia, Calif.: **Burtis E. Taylor,** formerly assistant superintendent at Riverside, Calif., has been named successor to **William Starckel,** who resigned to join an eastern management consultant firm.

Erie, Pa.: **Joseph H. Zipper,** assistant superintendent since 1958, is now superintendent.

Zanesville, Ohio: **Wallace E. Blake,** formerly superintendent at Logan, Ohio, has replaced **Donald F. Summers,** retired.

Middletown, N. Y.: **Thor Krogh,** formerly high-school principal, is successor to **Ralph Shattuck,** resigned.

Terre Haute, Ind.: **Max P. Gilbert,** who has been acting superintendent since the resignation of **Wayne P. Watson,** has been named superintendent.

Aberdeen, Idaho: **Roy A. Weston** has retired.

Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio: **Richard Gousha,** has been named successor to the late **F. M. Bode.**

Shaker Heights, Ohio: **Donald G. Emery,** formerly dean, College of Adult Education, Municipal University of Omaha, Neb., has succeeded **William Slade, Jr.,** retired.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Indiana University, Bloomington: **Herman B. Wells** has announced his resignation, effective July 1, 1962, to assist in development of the research division, Indiana University Foundation.

Fairmont State College, W. Va.: **Eston K. Feaster,** dean of the college of education, West Virginia University, Morgantown, has been named successor to the late **John W. Pence.**

University of Tennessee, Knoxville: **Andrew D. Holt,** formerly vice-president, has been inaugurated as president.

Eastern Kentucky State College, Richmond: **Robert R. Martin,** formerly Kentucky state commissioner of finance, has succeeded **W. F. O'Donnell,** retired.

Bradley University, Peoria, Ill.: **Harold P. Rodes** has resigned to become president of General Motors Institute, Flint, Mich.

University of Dallas, Tex.: **Robert Morris,** formerly chief counsel of the Senate Internal Security Subcommittee, has been named president.

Thiel College, Greenville, Pa.: **Frederic B. Irvin** has resigned to become cultural officer, U. S. Information Agency.

Chatham College, Pittsburgh, Pa.: **Edward D. Eddy, Jr.,** formerly vice-president of the University of New Hampshire, Durham, has succeeded **Paul R. Anderson,** now vice-president at Temple University.

North Central College, Naperville, Ill.: **Arlo L. Schilling,** 35, formerly assistant superintendent at Elkhart, Ind., has succeeded **C. H. Geiger,** retired.

Mississippi State University, State College: **Dean W. Colvard,** formerly dean at State College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh, is the new president, succeeding **Ben Hilbun.**

Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, N. Y.: **Paul Langdon Ward,** formerly of Carnegie Institute of Technology, has succeeded **Harold Taylor,** resigned.

Peninsula College, Port Angeles, Wash.: **E. John Maier,** dean at Yakima Valley Junior College, Wash., has been appointed first president of the college, which is expected to open in the fall of 1961.

Southwestern State College, Weatherford, Okla.: **Al Harris,** formerly superintendent at Clinton, Okla., has been named president.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

Pennsylvania State University, University Park: **Charles M. Long,** professor of education and head of the department of elementary education, has resigned to become specialist in elementary education, U. S. International Cooperation Administration, Education Division.

Michigan State University, East Lansing: **John E. Ivey, Jr.,** president of the Learning Resources Institute of New York City, president of the Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction, and executive vice-president of New York University, has been appointed professor of education and consultant to the president. He will serve part time this year and full time starting in September 1961.

University of Chicago, Ill.: **Willard J. Congreve,** formerly principal of Von Humboldt Elementary School, Chicago, has been appointed assistant professor in the department of education and principal of the University of Chicago High School. Also named assistant professor in the department of education is **Frederick F. Lighthall,** formerly of Yale University, who has been conducting research on anxiety in children.

University of Illinois, Urbana: **Alonzo G. Grace,** formerly associate dean of the school of education, New York University, has been named dean of the college of education.

Seattle Pacific College, Wash.: **Ernest W. Horn,** formerly dean of the school of education, is now director of curriculum in Marion, Ind. His successor is **Elmer B. Siebrecht.**

University of Pittsburgh, Pa.: **Richard Wynn,** formerly associate coordinator, Cooperative Center for Educational Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, is now associate dean and professor of education.

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor: **Harlan C. Koch,** assistant dean of the graduate school and professor of education, has retired. **John S. Brubacher,** who has been on leave from Yale University the past year conducting the Four-College Study for the state of Connecticut, has been appointed professor of higher education.

Midland College, Fremont, Neb.: **Cecil E. Walker,** formerly superintendent at Seward, Neb., is now head of the education department.

University of New Mexico, Albuquerque: **Peter Prouse,** formerly associate executive director of the National School Boards Association, is now associate professor of education.

Evansville College, Ind.: **Lucille Jones,** head of the department of education for 18 years, has retired.

Yeshiva University, New York: **Benjamin Fine,** dean of the graduate school of education, has resigned to devote his time to writing.

Pacific Lutheran University, Tacoma, Wash.: **John Amend,** formerly assistant superintendent at Aberdeen, Wash., is now dean of the college of education.

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.: **Rodney Tillman,** director of elementary education for Montgomery County, Md., has been named professor of elementary education and curriculum.

George Washington University, Washington, D. C.: **Gordon L. Lippitt,** formerly assistant director, Division of Adult Education Service, NEA, is now professor of behavioral sciences.

Upper Iowa University, Fayette: **Paul Pickett,** formerly superintendent at Fayette, is now a member of the education department faculty.

Arkansas State College, State College: **Lloyd Goff,** formerly superintendent at Jonesboro, Ark., is now a member of the education department faculty.

University of Wisconsin, Madison: **Burr W. Phillips,** professor of education and history, and **Mrs. Lois Griggs,** professor of elementary education, have retired.

Oberlin College, Ohio: **Floyd D. Grove,** professor of education and a member of the faculty for 31 years, has retired.

New York University, N. Y.: **Ellis F. White,** formerly executive director of the Education Advisory Council, International Business Machines Corporation, is now chairman of the department of higher education, succeeding **Alonzo F. Myers,** retired.

Franklin College of Indiana, Franklin: **Curtis D. Kirklin,** head of the education department, has retired after 36 years on the faculty.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Gerald W. Smith, superintendent at Elmwood Park, Ill., has accepted the newly created dual position of executive secretary of the Illinois Association of School Administrators and administrative relations associate of the Illinois Education Association.

Virgil R. Walker has been named director, Educational Statistics Branch, U.S. Office of Education, and **Herbert S. Conrad** has been named coordinator of research, Division of Higher Education, U. S. Office of Education.

Ted C. Gilbert, formerly assistant superintendent of public instruction for Kentucky, is now executive secretary of the Kentucky Council on Public Higher Education, Frankfort.

J. Paul Mather is now president and executive director of American College Testing Service, Iowa City, Ia.

J. C. Fitzgerald, director of the Division of Continuing Education, Oklahoma State University, has been named president-elect of the Department of Rural Education, NEA. President-elect of the Division of County and Rural Area Superintendents is **T. C. Knapp,** Canton, Ohio.

Matthew J. Brennan, formerly of the U. S. Office of Education, is now head of the education branch of the U. S. Forest Service's Division of Information and Education. He succeeds **Charles Wesley Mattison,** retired.

Robert Dean Patton, professor of economics, Ohio State University, has been appointed editor of the *Journal of Higher Education.*

Byron W. Hansford, formerly deputy superintendent of public instruction for Michigan, is now Colorado commissioner of education, succeeding **H. Grant Vest,** resigned.

RECENT DEATHS:

Harold Rugg, former professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and author of numerous school textbooks, at the age of 74.

Robert M. Strozier, president of Florida State University, at the age of 53. He died while visiting the University of Chicago, where he was a candidate for the chancellorship.

Frank Ellsworth Spaulding, former superintendent at Cleveland, Ohio, and Minneapolis, Minn., at the age of 93. He organized the education department at Yale Graduate School and was its chairman for nine years.

NEA Conference

ADOPTION of a resolution somewhat stiffening the NEA's policy stand on integration in the schools was one of the highlights of the 98th annual convention of the National Education Association this summer in Los Angeles, Calif.

The Association also approved the affiliation of two new departments with the NEA—The American Association of School Librarians and the American Driver Education Association.

Announcement was also made at the convention of a major two-year project by the association—a comprehensive inventory of space-age changes in the nation's schools. The project, designed to test the adequacy of the American school program and to make recommendations for further developments, will be headed by Ole Sand of Wayne State University, Detroit.

Ewald Turner, a junior-high-school crafts teacher in Pendleton, Ore., was named vice-president of the Association in a closely-contested election. Clarice Kline, Waukesha, Wis., is the new president.

Russia Revisited

A GROUP of 56 members of the Comparative Education Society are now in Russia studying first-hand the recent controversial "reforms" in Soviet education.

The 56 educators, led by William W. Brickman, professor of education at New York University, left the U. S. on Aug. 13 and will return Sept. 17. The educators are particularly interested in seeing the effect on Soviet students of recent fundamental changes in schooling, especially the system of "polytechnical training" pushed by Premier Khrushchev as a means of increasing economic production in the Soviet Union.

This year's visit to the Soviet Union is the second undertaken by members of the society. Many of the same educators toured Russia in 1958 and brought back the first authoritative information on Soviet education under the Communist regime.

National Council

ESTABLISHMENT of a National Council on Education has been recommended by John H. Fischer, dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, to help in national education planning.

Dr. Fischer called for a group chartered by Congress, such as the American Red Cross, but financed by foundations, local school boards, and other groups rather than by federal money. Such a council would provide national purpose and guidance to the curriculum without having any powers which could lead to regimentation, he said.

Catholic School Problems

THE big problem in the Roman Catholic school in the U. S. is the same problem affecting the country's public schools—teacher shortage. This fact has been revealed by the Department of Education, National Catholic Welfare Conference.

The Department reports that lay teachers, as opposed to religious orders, now make up 29 percent of the teaching staffs of this country's Catholic elementary schools. In 1945, 4.6 percent of the teachers were secular. By 1971, according to present estimates, secular teachers will outnumber nuns.

The Department also revealed that the Catholic school system in the U. S. is now the largest private school system in the world. Last year more than 4,260,000 pupils were enrolled in 10,278 Catholic elementary schools and 827,912 in 2,401 Catholic high schools.

College Admissions

A TWO-YEAR, world-wide study on university admissions has been started through the initiative of Unesco and the International Association of Universities.

Supported by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, the study will be directed by Frank H. Bowles, president of the College Entrance Examination Board, who has been granted a leave of absence for the task.

The study was started after a commission of nine experts, drawn from countries with more than 85 percent of the world's university students, reported at a meeting in Paris this summer that a "condition approaching crisis" exists with respect to admission to universities in all countries of the world.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Oct. 7-12, Department of Rural Education, NEA, Louisville, Ky.

Oct. 9-13, Association of School Business Officials, St. Louis, Mo.

Oct. 14-16, National Association of Public School Adult Educators, Denver, Colo.

Oct. 17-21, National Safety Council, Chicago, Ill.

Oct. 20-22, Youth Conference on the Atom, Chicago, Ill.

Nov. 6-12, American Education Week.

Nov. 7-10, National Institutional Teacher Placement Association, St. Louis, Mo.

Improving the Quality of Public School Programs: Approaches to Curriculum Development. Harold J. McNally and A. Harry Passow. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960. Pp. xvii + 331. $4.95.

This book is an attempt to wed theory with practice in a manner helpful to administrators and curriculum workers. Reports of seven school systems where educational programs of exceptional interest have been built are included. These reports, written by educators from the areas described, give attention to program objectives, means of initiation, organization, procedures, personnel involved, etc.

Preceding these reports, the authors provide four chapters of analysis of curriculum problems, principles, and procedures. In the final chapter following the reports, they offer a summary and formulate guidelines and evaluation criterions based on the program descriptions.

The American Secondary School. L. O. Taylor, Don R. McMahill, and Bob L. Taylor. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiii + 492. $5.50.

The authors state in their preface that they have proposed in this book a program for the secondary school which is in agreement with the consensus of specialists in this field.

The book is divided into four parts. Part I is concerned with identification of aims and purposes of the high school. Part II is devoted to a consideration of the means and materials by which the purposes can be achieved. Part III deals with a presentation of five significant problems in secondary education: reporting student progress, the slow and rapid learner, the improvement of reading, guidance, and discipline and adjustment to school life. Part IV presents methods of improving service to youth.

Although the book was written as a textbook for a first course in secondary education, it should be of interest to teachers in service as well as administrators and supervisors.

Budgeting for Better Schools. Leon Ovsiew and William B. Castetter. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.; Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiv + 338. $7.95.

The importance of the budget and the budgetary process in improving the quality of education provided in local school systems is the underlying theme of this book.

In addition to being a comprehensive guide to several different types of school budgets, the book discusses the budget-making process in detail. It describes the many ways that a well-designed school budget can be used as an instrument for educational planning, evaluation, and financial control.

This practical book is written in an easy-to-understand manner.

The Junior College: Progress and Prospect. Leland L. Medsker. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiv + 367. $6.50.

This book, the result of a study of 76 two-year institutions in 15 states by Dr. Medsker, is designed to present an analysis of the functions these institutions are performing, and how adequately they are doing their job.

The study first gives an overview of the two-year college movement, summarizing its strengths and weaknesses. In following chapters the author describes the students who attend the colleges, the programs offered by the colleges, the extent to which students transfer to four-year colleges, the performance and retention of transfer students, counseling efforts of the college, the attitudes of the teaching staff, and the position of the junior college in state-wide systems of higher education.

The final chapter projects the two-year college into the immediate years ahead—the major problems it will most likely encounter and conclusions pertaining to its organization and support.

Leadership for Improving Instruction. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1960. Pp. x + 198. $3.75.

This book, the 1960 Yearbook of the ASCD, is a search through what is known about democratic leadership and an analysis of how it can be applied toward instructional improvement.

The Yearbook Committee points out that the purpose of the book is not to proffer specific solutions, but to stimulate thinking, discussion, study, and evaluation of present leadership practices.

For those already in leadership positions, this book outlines ways of improving their effectiveness. Attention is also given to developing potential leaders, since, as stated in the introduction, "all individuals and groups have leadership potential and exhibit leader behavior to some degree."

Handbook of Adult Education in the United States. Edited by Malcolm S. Knowles. Chicago: Adult Education Association of the U.S.A., 1960. Pp. xv + 624. $7.50.

This is an authoritative guide to the complicated and expansive field of adult education. The book provides more than a description of what adult education is. It also explains how adult education came about, why a new curriculum and methodology for adults is being developed, and where the adult-education movement seems to be going.

Approximately 50 authors are included in the essays contained in the volume.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED: ELEMENTARY

The Teaching of Reading. John J. DeBoer and Martha Dallmann. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1960. Pp. viii + 360. $5.00.

Learn to Listen, Speak, and Write. Book 1. Marion Monroe, Ralph G. Nichols, and W. Cabell Greet. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1960. Teacher's Edition, $1.20; Pupil's Edition, $.64. Practice Pad to accompany Pupil's Edition, $.40.

Exploring Science. Books 1 through 6. Walter A. Thurber. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Teachers' Editions, $2.32, $2.52, $2.68, $2.88, $2.92, and $3.12.

Social Studies in the Elementary School Program. Wilhelmina Hill. Bulletin No. 5, 1960, U.S. Office of Education. Pp. vi + 110. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. $.50.

Hi Neighbor. Book 3. New York: United States Committee for Unicef, 1960. Pp. 64. $1.50. Fun and folklore from the countries of Nigeria, Ethiopia, Greece, Chile, and Thailand.

1960

English for Meaning. Book 7. Paul McKee, *et al.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960. Pp. xii + 468. $3.28.

Guidance of the Young Child. Louise M. Langford. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. vii + 349.

Early Childhood Education. Hazel M. Lambert. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. x + 438. $5.95.

The Child and His Curriculum. (Third Edition.) J. Murray Lee and Dorris May Lee. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 596. $6.50.

SECONDARY

Our Environment; Its Relation to Us and Our Environment; How We Adapt Ourselves to It. Paul E. Smith. **Our Environment; How We Use and Control It.** Gordon E. Van Hooft. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiii + 464, xiii + 625, and xvi + 688. $3.96, $4.60, and $5.68, respectively. General science texts for junior-high school.

High Schools for a Free Society: Education for Citizenship in American Secondary Schools. Franklin Patterson. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1960. Pp. 93. $1.00.

130 Basic Typing Jobs. Ruth I. Anderson and Leonard J. Porter. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. 62. $1.44.

Magruder's American Government. Revised by William A. McClenaghan. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 756. $5.44.

Basic Concepts of Elementary Mathematics. William L. Schaaf. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. xvii + 386. $5.50.

COLLEGE

The Open Door College: A Case Study. Burton R. Clark. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. xvi + 207. $5.00. A study of the San Jose Junior College during its first four years.

The Goals of Higher Education. Edited by Willis D. Weatherford, Jr. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960. Pp. 122. $3.50. Contains six essays by prominent educators.

Student Financial Aid; Manual for Colleges and Universities. Homer D. Babbidge, Jr. Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1960. Pp. iv + 56. $1.50.

Teacher Education in the United States. Lindley J. Stiles, A. S. Barr, Harl R. Douglass, and Hubert H. Mills. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1960. Pp. viii + 512. $6.75.

GUIDANCE

Careers and Opportunities in Chemistry; A Survey of All Fields. Philip Pollack. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 147. $3.50.

Careers in Education. Frederick L. Redefer and Dorothy Reeves. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. xi + 209. $4.00.

School Guidance and Personnel Services. Francis C. Rosecrance and Velma D. Hayden. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 373. $6.00.

GENERAL

Cassell's Spanish Dictionary. Edited by Edgar Allison Peers, *et al.* New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company, 1960. Pp. xvi + 1477. $7.00, plain; $7.75, thumb-indexed.

Discussion, Conference, and Group Process. Halbert E. Gulley. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1960. Pp. xii + 388. $4.50.

Do They Understand You? A Guide to Effective Oral Communication. Wesley Wiksell. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960. Pp. ix + 200. $4.95.

Aging in Today's Society. Edited by Clark Tibbitts and Wilma Donahue. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. xxv + 418. $6.00.

The Overseas Americans. Harlan Cleveland, Gerard J. Mangone, and John C. Adams. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. xv + 316. $5.95. Emphasizes the responsibility of our higher educational institutions to prepare Americans for overseas service.

Canada; A Modern History. J. Bartlett Brebner. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan Press, 1960. Pp. xvii + 553. $10.00. One of the History of the Modern World series.

Mental Health in Education. Merle E. Bonney. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiii + 434. $5.50.

Light from a Thousand Campfires. Edited by Kenneth B. Webb. New York: Association Press, 1960. Pp. 384. $4.95.

Case Studies in School Supervision. J. Bernard Everett, Mary Downing, and Howard Leavitt. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. v + 58. $1.00.

Introduction to Atomic Energy. William G. Atkinson. New York: John F. Rider Publisher, Inc., 1960. Pp. vii + 68. $1.35.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Invitation to German Poetry. A 12", LP record. Selections made by Gustave Mathieu and Guy Stern and read by Lotte Lenya. New York: Dover Publications, Inc., 1960. $4.95. Includes a 165-page book with the German texts of the poems and English translations.

Operating Audio-Visual Equipment. Sidney E. Eboch. San Francisco: Howard Chandler, Publisher, 1960. Pp. 73. $1.75.

The Stereo Illusion and How It is Achieved. Audio-Visual Bulletin No. 5, American School Band Directors Association, 1960. Pp. 41. Available from Seymour Okum, 17367 Pinehurst St., Detroit 21, Mich. $.75.

Conversa-phone Children's Language Course. A LP record, with manual, designed for children, ages 6-12. Records available in Spanish, French, Italian, and German. New York: Arco Publishing Company, Inc., 1960. $2.98 each.

READER INFORMATION SERVICE

Send in this coupon to get additional information easily and quickly from the advertisers in this issue and about the materials listed in "New Educational Materials."

- ☐ **Conbell Eqpt. Co. Maps**
- ☐ **Viewlex Projectors**
- ☐ **G. P. Putnam's Books**

I would also like more information on the following books and other materials listed in this issue:

....

....

Name .... **Position** ....

Address **S-60**

Send to THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST STAFF

LAWRENCE W. PRAKKEN, Editor and Publisher

JEROME C. PATTERSON, Managing Editor

WARREN R. GOOD, Associate Editor

OLIVER E. HANNINEN, Assistant Editor

MARGUERITE D. TURNER, Assistant Editor

BARBARA N. LEAKE, Circulation Manager

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

THOMAS D. BAILEY, Superintendent, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

NATT B. BURBANK, Superintendent of Schools. Boulder, Colorado

JOHN S. CARTWRIGHT, Superintendent of Schools, Allentown, Pennsylvania

ARTHUR F. COREY, Executive Secretary, California State Teachers Association, San Francisco

LYMAN V. GINGER, Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington

PHILIP J. HICKEY, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis, Missouri

HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, Chief, Elementary Schools Section. U. S. Office of Education, Washington

HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

L. S. MICHAEL, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

FRED RAUBINGER, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey

JAMES E. RUSSELL, Secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.

GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Principal, The Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut

RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington

DONALD E. TOPE, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene

HENRY I. WILLETT, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

MEMBER OF

EDUCATIONAL
PRESS
ASSOCIATION
OF
AMERICA

Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., Lexington 2-0020. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 1025 Harlem Ave., Glenview, Ill., PArk 4-0800. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 711 S. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

Two IMPORTANT New Titles

The Putnam Series in Education

Focus on Values in Elementary Education

by LAURA ZIRBES, Professor Emeritus, The Ohio State University

238 pages 5½ x 8 $4.50

Here are challenging ideas and practical suggestions, in a new book by the author of SPURS TO CREATIVE TEACHING, which will appeal to the aspirations and deepen the insights of teachers.

Educational Research for Classroom Teachers

by JOHN B. BARNES, Arizona State University

With a Foreword by Maynard Bemis

256 pages 5½ x 8 $4.00

This book introduces the practicing educator to a kind of research that is teacher-oriented and to a kind of teaching that is research oriented. The author employs a case approach to illustrate how specific research techniques can be used in real problems in the school.

Other Titles in This Outstanding Series

Getting Down to Cases: A Problems Approach to Educational Philosophizing, by ROBERT L. BRACKENBURY. $4.00

The Child's World: His Social Perception, by FRANK J. ESTVAN and ELIZABETH W. ESTVAN. $4.95

Fives at School: Teaching in the Kindergarten, by ELENORA HAEGELE MOORE. $4.75

Father to the Child: Case Studies of the Experiences of a Male Teacher with Young Children, by EVERETT S. OSTROVSKY. $3.75

Individualizing Your Reading Program: Self-Selection in Action, by JEANNETTE VEATCH. $4.50

Spurs To Creative Teaching: By LAURA ZIRBES. $5.75

Order Your Copies Today

G. P. Putnam's Sons

210 Madison Avenue New York 16, N. Y.

Bureau Edni. Research
DAVID H COLLEGE
Dated ....
Acc. No ....

A NEW DIMENSION IN WASHABLE MAPS

STIMULATE STUDENT INTEREST with mountains and valleys they can actually feel. Help your class develop a better understanding of how the physical nature of the country has aided in shaping the history and geography of today. Paint in the rivers—wash them away. A thousand and one maps can be applied and removed. The ideal participation tool for teacher, student or group.

MADE OF TOUGH VINYL PLASTIC and framed in stainless steel, these 21" x 31½" units will take years of use. Water soluble paints wash off with ease. Cutouts from magazines, newspapers, travel folders, postcards etc., flags, pennants, and designs can be supplied by the student's own research and easily applied for added visual interest.

AVAILABLE IN THE FOLLOWING MODELS:
#0050 Territorial Growth of the United States
0060 The United States in 1861
0070 The United States Today (pictured above)
0080 The United States Executive Model
(gold and bronze metalic finish for decorative use)
PRICE per map: $9.95
or
Send For Free Brochure

Conbell Equipment Co. - Addison, Ill.

The EDUCATION DIGEST

CONTENTS

Financing Public Education . The School Review 1

The Coming Breakthrough in Teacher Education The Educational Forum 5

Hawaiian Public Schools . The Nation's Schools 9

For Gifted Students . Independent School Bulletin 13

Educational TV—Catastrophe or Opportunity? Journal of the AAUW 14

Tomorrow's Youth . Citizenship and a Free Society 17

Group Forces Affect Learning Journal of the Natl. Assn. of Women Deans 21

The Futility of Accrediting Journal of Higher Education 24

Elementary Education: 1985 Educational Leadership 26

The Human Comedy and Education Educational Horizons 29

Financial Rewards of Teaching NEA Research Bulletin 32

Foreign Languages for Children The National Elementary Principal 35

Time Limits and Behavior of Test Takers Educational and Psychological Measurement 38

Emphases in Elementary Social Studies Social Studies in the Elementary School 41

Dare Schools Set a Standard in English Usage? The English Journal 45

Use of Appraisal Data by Guidance Workers Review of Educational Research 48

With Education in Washington 51

Educational News 55

New Educational Materials 60

Volume XXVI October 1960 Number 2

THE EDUCATION DIGEST STAFF

LAWRENCE W. PRAKKEN, Editor and Publisher
JEROME C. PATTERSON, Managing Editor
WARREN R. GOOD, Associate Editor
OLIVER E. HANNINEN, Assistant Editor
BURLEY L. HENDRICKS, Assistant Editor
BARBARA N. LEAKE, Circulation Manager

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

THOMAS D. BAILEY, Superintendent, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida
NATT B. BURBANK, Superintendent of Schools, Boulder, Colorado
JOHN S. CARTWRIGHT, Superintendent of Schools, Allentown, Pennsylvania
ARTHUR F. COREY, Executive Secretary, California State Teachers Association, San Francisco
LYMAN V. GINGER, Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington
PHILIP J. HICKEY, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis, Missouri
HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, Chief, Elementary Schools Section, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
L. S. MICHAEL, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois
FRED RAUBINGER, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey
JAMES E. RUSSELL, Secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.
GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Principal, The Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut
RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington
DONALD E. TOPE, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene
HENRY I. WILLETT, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

MEMBER OF

EDUCATIONAL
PRESS
ASSOCIATION
OF
AMERICA

Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., Lexington 2-0020. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 1025 Harlem Ave., Glenview, Ill., PArk 4-0800. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 711 S. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1960 by Lawrence W. Prakken

Volume XXVI OCTOBER 1960 Number 2

What Policy Decisions Are Necessary?

Financing Public Education in the Decade Ahead

ROALD F. CAMPBELL

In The School Review

By 1970 how much money is it going to take to support the nation's public schools and colleges? Where will the funds come from?

To consider these questions, we must relate population projections, economic trends, and certain policy decisions yet to be made by the American people. We cannot approach these phenomenons with equal confidence. Extending population growth seems quite safe. Projecting economic potential is less certain. Predicting policy decisions is downright hazardous. Even so, there is a need to see the total picture.

Careful analyses of population growth have been made. These figures have been projected, school enrolments have been calculated, and predictions have been made for the next decade. It seems safe to predict that by 1970 we shall have enrolments in our schools as follows: elementary, 36 million; secondary, 14 million; and college, 7.5 million.

Roald F. Campbell is Professor of Education and Director of the Midwest Administration Center at the University of Chicago, Illinois. Reported from The School Review, *LXVIII (Summer 1960), 125-35.*

There remains the task of calculating the dollar demands for the enrolments suggested. On the basis of analysis available, this projection —with no change in quality of program — would total 27.3 billion annually in 1970.

But if we should attempt to improve the quality of education, still greater expenditures will be necessary. The Educational Policies Commission has made a case for the fact that current expenditures for elementary and secondary schools are but 60 percent of the cost of a quality program. Moreover, if inflation continues, the dollar amounts will have to be stepped up even more. It would thus appear that an estimated yearly budget of $30 billion for all public education a decade hence is a conservative figure.

Where will the money come from? At present, about 4 percent of our gross national product is being expended for public schools and colleges. If, as has been estimated, the 1970 production of goods and services rises to $750 billion, a 4 percent allocation for education would provide the $30 billion school and college budget. There is little question that the resources of the nation will be adequate to meet school needs. Whether tax arrangements for allocating local, state, and national revenues will be up to the task is another matter.

The Educational Policies Commission has studied the capacity of the states to support education in terms of income left to their people after disbursements for personal taxes and for basic necessities of food, clothing, and shelter. Residual income in 1955 averaged $5,984 per school-age child in the eight highest states; $1,100 per school-age child in the eight lowest states. The differential between the highest and the lowest states is almost five to one.

While high-income states might do more to provide additional state revenue for schools and colleges, many low-income states, like Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and North Carolina, are already providing from state sources about 70 percent of the revenue needed for public schools. The average for all states is about 40 percent. It will probably be impossible for low-income states to meet from state sources the increasing financial demands for schools and colleges during the 1960's.

At the local level, the property tax is virtually the only source of revenue. While assessment practices can be improved, there is no practical way by which school revenue from this source can be greatly increased.

Where does this leave us with respect to financial resources for the 1960's? In general, little expansion is possible at the local level. At the state level, only high-income states can do much to meet increased demands. It seems clear that much of the margin between present expenditures and our target of $30 billion is going to require a plan of financing in which the federal government pays a substantial part.

POLICY DECISIONS NEEDED

If a sum of $30 billion a year is to be spent for public schools and colleges and if a substantial part of this amount is to come from federal sources, obviously some policy decisions must be made by the American people. A very important change must take place in the attitude of many Americans concerning federal aid to education. Prejudices, such as those concerning federal control which might come about should federal aid be accepted, must be dispelled. And there must be a more clear-minded view of the traditional attitude that education is solely a local matter.

Assuming that in time the American people can dispel the myths to which they have clung concerning federal aid to education, what policy decisions are necessary if an appropriate share of our resources is to be channeled to the support of schools and colleges? In bare outline, these policy decisions would seem to include the following:

1. *That a substantial part of our wealth be used for the support of public schools and colleges.* Our goal should probably be to double the 4 percent of our gross national product now used.

2. *That all levels of government participate in financing public schools and colleges.* No longer can it be assumed that only states and localities have a stake in public education. The National Defense Education Act has made official what we have known for a long time: that education is vital to our national survival. For this reason, if for no other, the federal government cannot remain aloof.

3. *That we make appropriate use of our major tax resources for schools and colleges.* At the local level, the property tax will probably remain the chief source of school revenue. The sales tax should become even more significant as a source of state funds for education. Galbraith's point is well taken that, in an affulent society, an expanded sales tax is an admirable instrument of social balance. Through the personal and corporate income tax, the federal government has a source of revenue that very quickly reflects the economic power of the nation. Already the federal government collects about 70 percent of all taxes; it seems reasonable that a portion of this money should be used for the support of schools and colleges. The federal government has become the chief tax collector for the simple reason that the major part of our wealth can be reached by federal tax provisions more effectively than by local and state tax programs. Clearly, tax revenues need to be tapped where they are and used where they are needed.

GENERAL, NOT SPECIFIC

4. *That federal participation in financing schools and colleges be for general and not specific purposes.* Hysteria wrote many specific aid provisions into the National Defense Education Act. These specifics include funds for equipment to be used to improve instruction in science, mathematics, and foreign language; and fellowships for teachers who attend summer guidance institutes. But in reality, we do not improve instruction in science and mathematics very much unless we improve the whole school program. Nor will we get very far with a cadre of well reimbursed, partially trained guidance personnel as long as the teaching staff generally is underpaid or inadequate or both. Ruml has recommended general aid to all states on a flat grant plan. The Murray-Metcalf bill gives expression to that idea. The Commit-

tee for Economic Development has recommended general aid for 19 of our neediest states. Such plans for general aid tend to take the federal government out of the business of exercising undue control.

5. *That operating decisions for schools and colleges be kept as near home as possible*. This position would permit us to retain basic legal responsibility for education and for the enforcement of minimum standards at the state level. Such a policy would also continue to delegate to local boards much responsibility for control of the actual operation of schools and colleges. At the same time, state and federal monies should be made available to these boards of control to insure an educational program commensurate with the needs of a great nation. To be sure there will have to be some kind of accounting control over these funds, but the accounting should be an integral part of the regular accounting procedure and not a special invention of the Bureau of the Budget.

At this point it seems appropriate to ask how we can move toward the goals suggested. There is no magic formula. It does seem clear that policy-making is a political process. Far-reaching policy – the kind of which we have been speaking – is formalized by state legislatures and by Congress. But we cannot concentrate on that formalization only. Perhaps we need to understand more clearly than we do the nature of the influences that are brought to bear on law-making bodies. It is at the level of policy formulation, not policy enactment, that work needs to be done. In the end, the case for adequate financing of education must be made by influential lay leaders.

Does all this talk about politics and lay leaders mean that the education profession can do nothing? While I do think policy decisions for education are essentially lay decisions, I am convinced that the profession can and must influence these decisions. First of all, the profession needs to keep everlastingly at the business of marshaling facts. However, the profession might do more to make common cause with other scholars. We have, for instance, thoroughly competent economists who are vigorous inquirers and exponents of ideas. They cannot easily be accused of pleading special cause. We need to test our ideas against their scholarship.

All of us must know something about the relationship between economic well-being and the provision for adequate schools and colleges generally. Only with such understanding, I suggest, can we exert any influence on the power figures in our own communities. And as we know, these power figures at the state and national levels do live in the local communities. Ours are not the only voices these lay leaders will give ear to, but they will hear more when we have more to say. As professionals, we can give information, suggest consequences, and take a position on how to meet needs in school finance. •

Have We Set Our Sights Too Low?

The Coming Breakthrough in Teacher Education

THEODORE BRAMFELD

In The Educational Forum

To speak of the *coming* breakthrough in teacher education is to grant a certain degree of journalistic license. Conceivably no major innovations will occur at once. Nevertheless, there are reasons why they may occur and still more important reasons why they should occur as soon as possible. The more clearly, moreover, we perceive the nature of the improvements that are urgent, the more likely the chances they will come about. For, as is true of any kind of building process, definite designs of the desired objectives are essential if they are to be built successfully at all.

The crucial question is: What kind of a breakthrough will take place? This depends on as wide a consensus as possible about what *ought* to take place. And at present there is no consensus. Until there is, the result of change could be disastrous. It could mean that teacher education will become anything that the most vociferous and powerful sections of professional and lay opinion wish it to be. Unfortunately, these sections do not always speak in behalf of the best interests either of teachers or of the children to be taught.

I wish here to set forth in brief my own views on what kind of breakthrough in teacher education is most desirable. I suggest as its primary goal that the profession of teaching establish standards of preparation at least equivalent to those of the medical profession. Analogies between the two professions are apt; both serve the public welfare in the widest and deepest sense of that term; both are concerned with the fullest development of the human being so that he may carry on his life unhampered by the deficiencies of ignorance or illness. If anything, the teacher serves a still higher function; He is properly concerned not only to prevent or correct deficiencies but even more to stimulate and nourish the positive qualities of each person in his care.

What are the chief requirements for a medical education? Granting that schools of medicine vary widely in quality, just as do schools of education, few if any would be

Theodore Bramfeld is Professor of Educational Philosophy at Boston University, Massachusetts. Reported from The Educational Forum, *XXIV (May 1960), 449-56.*

likely to deny that four requirements are indispensable.

The first is general education, which typically precedes profesfesional training itself. The second requirement is specialized knowledge of all subjects germane to the field of medicine. The third is thorough opportunity to practice the skills of healing and curing. And the fourth, perhaps the most tenuous requirement, is a theory of medicine—its place in human history, for example, and its role in the community, so that the physician may attain perspective on his duties and obligations both as a man of science and as a servant of man.

TEACHERS AND DOCTORS

A moment's reflection will disclose direct parallels with teacher education. First, *general education.* Whether a young man or woman plans to be a lung specialist or a high-school history teacher, the dominant characteristics of his general education should be similar. The usual high-school curriculum, governed as it so frequently is by college-entrance requirements, is certainly not the model for a good general education. Nor, for that matter, is the usual liberal-arts curriculum on the college level with its hodgepodge of courses. The needed general education should take place in a four-year junior college beginning with the present high-school junior year and extending through the present college sophomore year. Thus, it would embrace the ages 17 to 20, the years that bring the average young adult to the threshold of maturity.

The organizing principle of learning should be the great problem areas of contemporary humanity—scientific, esthetic, social, religious, political, educational. These problems constitute, as it were, the hub of a curriculum wheel. The spokes of the wheel serve to reinforce this hub. That is, students should have daily opportunity to focus on particular aspects of the great central problems and to do so according to their interests and abilities. Here, intensive courses in fields related to the respective problem should be readily available: chemistry or botany in the case of the science area, literature or painting in the case of the art area, social psychology or economic history in the case of the social area. Work experience for students not planning to go into profession and discussion groups, physical and recreation activities—all these, too, should function as spokes of the curriculum wheel.

The rim of the wheel should be the encompassing purpose of general education—namely, to provide every young citizen with comprehensive and dramatic understanding of the world in which he lives, of the goals that are needed for himself and his fellows, and of the means (political, educational, etc.) to achieve these goals.

Second, *specialized knowledge.* All medical students are required to acquire certain knowledge, such as anatomy, physiology, and neurology. Those who plan to specialize, as in the case of the surgeon, need to continue their training well beyond that of the general practitioner. The adequately prepared teacher requires exactly comparable training. Certain kinds of knowledge are indispensable. Most important, by far, is that cluster of subjects denoted by the increasingly popular term, behavioral sciences. The other main type of knowledge that the teacher needs is, of course, that which he requires if he plans to be a subject-matter specialist. Thus, if he is to work in the type of junior college outlined above, he may need intensive acquaintance with any one of a dozen or more fields—in fact, any of those provided by the spokes of the curriculum wheel.

PRACTICE

Third, *practice*. Where liberal-arts critics are the farthest from being right is in their naive assumption that teaching is something almost anyone can do if he knows his subject well enough. This assumption is just as absurd as to suppose that a physician is qualified to remove an appendix because he is well grounded in the subject of anatomy. One consequence is that, while no surgeon would be permitted to perform an operation without a good deal of preliminary directed practice, teachers, especially on the college level (many of them in the liberal arts), are permitted to operate on and often to damage the sensitive human organisms in their charge with no directed practice whatsoever. That some of them are nevertheless excellent teachers proves nothing; they are excellent in spite of their deficiency. The fact is that many others are also extremely poor, as almost any graduate of a typical liberal-arts college could testify. Yet it is these teachers who are sometimes the most vocal in their contempt for modern methodologies of learning and teaching.

To achieve standards of practice comparable to medicine, radical improvements are imperative. Internships, now beginning to be developed, should be required of all teachers in training and should occupy at least one academic year. In the case of specialists, two years should be expected of many. Interns should be paid fair salaries and work under the constant supervision of master teachers in first-rate school systems. The conventional pattern of practice should also be altered. Instead of delaying it, as is common, until nearly the end of the teacher's training, it should begin early—not later than the second professional year—and increase gradually.

Fourth, and finally, *unifying theory*. Our brief discussion of practice already indicates how interwoven are all four requirements of the over-all design. Each, indeed, is inseparable from the other three. This fourth part completes the gestalt. By unifying theory, I mean a philosophy of education that can provide integration and direction for the teacher as he proceeds to his years of professional work.

He will study with instructors thoroughly versed in the history of general philosophy, in the main divisions of that discipline, and in the multiple connections of philosophy with such other disciplines as the behavioral sciences, the humanities, and education itself.

But the place of unifying theory is by no means to be considered as just another set of course requirements. It will be successful only insofar as it permeates, vitalizes, and fuses the whole of the trainee's general education, the whole of his specialized knowledge, and the whole of his practice and experience. Like the other three parts, it sets a standard that can never be achieved to perfection, nor should it be. Like philosophies of life, the philosophy of education perennially demands fresh reformulation in terms of new events, new discoveries, new human goals. Nevertheless, in the degree that it succeeds, the teacher will embark on his career possessed of a clear sense of dedication to education as a great—perhaps the greatest—of all man's adventures. Without this sense, he cannot perform the full service entrusted to him.

How many years of training should such a program take? Typically, nine or 10 – four in the general-education program, four in the knowledge-practice-theory program, and one or two in the intern program. Remember, however, that two years are cut from the present four-year high school, that much dead wood is cast aside, and that the average trainee, therefore, receives his qualifying degree at the age of 25.

How realistic? More so, perhaps, than many might think. The present vast and costly resignation of American teachers each year (roughly 150,000) is at least partially due to the feeble investment that they make. As in medicine, the stronger the investment, the more stability the profession is bound to achieve. Similarly, the greater the respect and pride provided by a good teacher-education program, the greater the likelihood of permanent identification with it.

A decent salary scale is, of course, equally indispensable. The American people are just beginning to realize this necessity. As they do realize it increasingly, the quality of both training and trainees will proportionately rise.

For much too long, we have set our sights too low. The time has arrived to raise them high. If and as we do so, we shall witness the breakthrough already too long in coming. •

ONE nice thing about money—the color never clashes with any outfit you are wearing.—From *The Physical Educator.*

Different in Control and Financing

Hawaiian Public Schools

WALTON M. GORDON

In The Nation's Schools

ONE little Hawaiian boy asked his teacher: "Now that we have statehood, when will we get snow?" And two little native Hawaiians were discussing some mainland *haole* (white) tourists. One of them remarked in pidgin English: "You no can say 'mainland *haoles*' now. Us all mainland *haoles!*"

More seriously, the impact of the admission of Hawaii as a state has been significant. Hawaii for many years has been regarded by the world as one of the bright spots of racial and religious harmony, a show case for proving that true democracy is possible among diverse people. Those of us in education believe that we have played a significant role in developing and fostering this. We believe, too, that our public schools have been an important factor in developing the political maturity of the citizenry of these islands, as indicated by our people's response to their duties and responsibilities as citizens. The 93 percent of the electorate which participated in the first state election was a voting record only slightly higher than the customary turnout.

The organization for education in Hawaii is quite different from that of any other state. Its highly centralized administration and operation evolved from its historical background. There was no written language in Hawaii until the missionaries arrived in 1820. They put the spoken word into written form and organized schools to teach reading and writing of the language. These schools proved to be so popular that the greater part of the *adult* population enrolled.

The king of Hawaii was so impressed with what was being done for his subjects that he established a minister of education in his cabinet. All the schools in Hawaii were directed from the capital city after the government took over the responsibility for education. This centralization has continued to the present.

Although the schools are on seven of eight major islands, separated in some cases by miles of ocean, the State Department of Education is administered by a

Walton M. Gordon, who, though born in Tennessee, has served in Hawaiian schools for 35 years as teacher and administrator, is now State Superintendent of Public Instruction for Hawaii. Reported from The Nation's Schools, *LXV (June 1960), 51-55, 88.*

single board of education through its administrative office and by the superintendent and his staff. To facilitate administration, the islands are divided into four administrative school districts. Each has its district superintendent who is answerable directly to the state superintendent.

The state school board, however, does not have all the powers inherent in most school boards on the U.S. mainland. It has no budgetary or taxing power. The school budget, after being developed and approved by the board, has to be submitted through the governor to the legislature.

The elected legislature, thus, largely determines through fiscal control the program and the operation of the department of education. This procedure is of such long standing, and legislators have for many years been so jealous of this authority, that when the state constitution was drawn up and approved in 1950 in anticipation of statehood, it was impossible to switch this important function to the school board. The school board, however, sets policy, determines the curriculum in close cooperation with the professional staff, approves appointments, and performs its other legal functions on a statewide basis.

STATE PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT

The state school department recruits all teachers through a single personnel department and pays all teachers on the state salary schedule. Thus, it is easy for the superintendent to transfer administrators and teachers between districts to meet the needs of the school department and at the same time satisfy the personal needs and wishes of principals and teachers.

Both rural and urban teachers are paid on the same salary schedule, and educational requirements and teaching credentials are the same for both. All of this has made it possible to maintain a high quality of instruction in all the schools in the state. Hawaii's single salary schedule applies to teachers of all levels, which means that kindergarten teachers and high-school teachers — with equal training and experience—receive equal pay.

Because rural and urban teachers are paid on the same salary schedule, the *average* salary schedule for the state is high—$4,464. But the average salary for teachers as compared to salaries in large mainland city systems is comparatively low. In 1958-59 the maximum salary in Hawaii was $5,100. In comparable mainland cities of 100,000 or more salaries ranged from $4,000 to $6,080.

Most of Hawaii's 5,000 teachers are drawn from the University of Hawaii. But, to counteract the dangers of provincialism, Hawaii in the early 1930's instituted a program of teacher exchanges with educational systems throughout the United States. Teachers from Hawaii thus receive points of view and experiences that otherwise would not be possible. It should be added that there are so many requests for exchanges *to* Hawaii that it is impossible to fill all of them.

Since the University of Hawaii constitutes the chief training center for Hawaii's teachers, it has been possible for the university and the department of education to work closely together in developing a training program geared to predicted local needs. And, because graduation from the local university virtually guarantees a teaching position here, many high-school graduates seek admission to its college of education. Thus, it is possible to set high standards for admission. This high selectivity of candidates has brought students to the university who are able to maintain the very highest grade-point average.

Since 1932, five years of training have been required for teacher certification. One semester of the fifth year is spent on a "regular" teachers' assignment, under supervision, in the public schools, accompanied by seminars with the university training staff. The other semester is spent on the campus in graduate studies. This plan allows two "interns" to fill a single position during the school year, for which they receive full pay and accrue a year's credit on the salary schedule and full professional accreditation on completion of the extra graduate year of training. This is followed by two years' probation on the job before achieving permanent status as a teacher.

The department of public instruction and the college of education of the University of Hawaii develop and direct this teacher-training program through a Joint Teacher Training Committee. The dean of the college of education and the superintendent of public education serve as cochairmen of the committee. This mutually profitable arrangement enables the training program to be guided by estimated future enrolments in different grade levels. Such cooperation avoids situations like having too many high-school teachers graduating at a time when elementary teachers are needed.

SCHOOL PROGRAM

The Hawaiian school program follows the typical mainland pattern. High schools offer college-preparatory, commercial, general, and vocational curriculums. Here, also, there is an increased interest and emphasis on mathematics, science, language, and counseling. Hawaii has developed and is enlarging its program for the gifted. Honors classes have been instituted. Language courses are, this year, being extended into the elementary schools. Emphasis is being placed on the Asian languages—Chinese, Japanese, Tagalog, and Hindi—but offerings in the usual modern European languages are included. With increased interest in, and importance of, the Asian countries, Hawaii is in a strategic position to develop real leadership in training for foreign service. The attitudes of Hawaii's people — their tolerance and friendliness—are characteristics that should be exploited by the U.S. State Department and by commercial institutions for leadership roles in this turbulent world.

Hawaii's adult education program is free and offers evening instruction to 14,000 adults on six islands. Its technical schools last year trained skilled technicians in courses which included college-level mathematics and science and held evening classes for tradesmen who attended part-time and evening classes to improve their job skills and technical knowledge.

The schools of Hawaii operate "gastronomical filling stations" in the school lunch program, and its success has been so great that it is recognized as an integral part of the total health-education program.

Extensive work is also being carried on in programs for exceptional children. Percentage-wise, for example, the coverage offered Hawaii's mentally retarded ranks among the top five such programs offered in the United States.

In its general physical-education program, the schools last year gave physical fitness tests to 30,607 students in grades 5 to 12. Hawaii's youth ranked higher than the mainland averages in over-all performance by 16 percent for boys and 13 percent for girls. The greater part of the physical-education program is outdoors.

Like most states, Hawaii is not without its problems, and like most states, its problems are "little ones." Each year the school population increases enormously. This means more schools, more teachers, more books, and more supplies. This also means more money from a citizenry already heavily taxed by both local and federal governments. Obtaining additional funds for education in Hawaii is perhaps a greater problem than it is in most mainland communities. Since the school board does not have the taxing power to meet the rising cost of education and the ever-increasing growth in student population, much "selling" has to be done to get adequate legislative appropriations. Except for a small percentage that is raised by the counties for repairs, maintenance, and school construction, almost all monies must be raised at the state level.

Despite these problems, Hawaii, like its mainland sisters, is building up an educational system to add to the strength of the nation. We believe we have a unique contribution to make, particularly in the field of human relationships and international relations. •

TRUE education does not make all men alike. No human being worthy of the name is a common man; there is no magic and no virtue in commonness. Truth and virtue do not issue from undifferentiated mobs.—*Harold W. Dodds.*

A Special Project Seminar

For the Gifted Student

Jan W. Long

In The Independent School Bulletin

Jan W. Long teaches science at Westtown School, Pennsylvania. Reported from The Independent School Bulletin, *(May 1960), 12-13.*

FOR four years now, students of proved exceptional ability at Westtown School, Pennsylvania, have had an opportunity through a "Special Projects Seminar" to delve into some field of inquiry for the joy and excitement that come in learning for learning's sake.

No academic credit is given in this program. We want to attract the intellectually adventurous, not the conscientious student who is merely out to enhance a respectable school record. The projects undertaken, which must entail at least 60 hours of work, are centered on original experimental research, on artistic creations and interpretations, on library research, and sometimes on a combination of all these approaches.

The program starts early in the school year when the project is explained to a meeting of qualified students in the tenth through twelfth grades. Qualification is based on a substantial IQ and demonstrated superior performance. Students who wish to enter are given seven to 10 days to turn in to the faculty committee an outline of their proposed projects. When a project outline has been approved, a faculty member is assigned to each student as a sponsor.

Informal and formal meetings of students and sponsors occur regularly, or as needed during the year. At a formal early-winter meeting, each student presents his project to the group and gives an interim report. Then, when each project has been checked by the sponsor, comes the public formal gathering. Held the first Friday after spring vacation, this meeting is attended by parents, friends of the school, other students, and the faculty. Each student presents a summary of his work and answers questions from the floor. This concludes the program for the year.

We have been encouraged by the results of this program. Students consider it a great honor to be invited to participate. Faculty members have found working as a sponsor with an able, selfmotivated student in a new field to be a stimulating and rewarding experience. The students who have joined in the program have a profound feeling of satisfaction and accomplishment. We think that the program stands as a testimony to the real aim of academic education —the development and exercise of inquiring minds. •

What Attitude Will You Take?

Educational TV — Catastrophe or Opportunity?

MARTHA A. GABLE

In Journal of the American Association of University Women

THERE have been—unfortunately—extravagant claims made by enthusiasts that educational TV will solve all the problems of education. At the other extreme are the criticisms based on prejudice, sometimes accompanied by the invalidating boast "I never look at television."

Those who experience a sense of frustration in this situation are reminded that TV has been with us only 12 years. There has not been time for an entire generation to learn to live with it. Its explosive expansion has outstripped wise and mature guidance. Nevertheless, today TV *is* being used to provide expert classroom instruction in both schools and colleges, and varied patterns of organization and procedures are under study. Indications to date are that TV teaching, with proper planning and guidance, is generally successful.

It has been suggested by some critics that the money being spent on educational TV be applied to teachers' salaries to aid recruitment. Careful studies reveal, however, that the gain per teacher would be negligible. And many educators believe that even unlimited funds could not secure sufficient numbers of *good* teachers. But the careful uses of TV to share the gifts of outstanding teachers is a challenge which deserves careful attention.

Currently, the most frequently used pattern of TV lessons are those offered as enrichment and supplementary to courses of study received in a traditional-type classroom. These are received on both educational and commercial stations and have been accepted almost universally. Nearly every subject has been so presented.

Programs in basic instruction, where major content of courses of study are presented two to five times per week, represent a more expanded use of TV. The most elaborate experiment in this type of TV teaching is now in its fifth year of a five-year, closed-circuit project in Hagerstown, Md., where 43 schools are linked by coaxial cable. Results of this experiment to date are overwhelmingly favorable.

TV foreign-language teaching is taking place in several elementary

Martha Gable is Director of Radio and Television for the Philadelphia Board of Education. Reported from Journal of the American Association of University Women, *LXXX (May 1960), 213-16.*

schools and has provided expert instruction where few trained teachers are available. So far, reports indicate favorable results, even where classroom teachers are unfamiliar with the language.

VARIOUS EXPERIENCES

In 1957, a three-year experiment was undertaken in 11 cities and two states, under the sponsorship of the Fund for the Advancement of Education of the Ford Foundation, to study the effectiveness of teaching major-course content by TV to large classes. Groups of from 90 to 600 pupils received lessons in large classrooms, auditoriums, and cafeterias, with two to six teachers per class, on TV sets in a ratio of one set to an average of 30 pupils. Summer workshops were organized where a teamwork approach to teaching was evolved among classroom teachers, TV teachers, and curriculum experts. Teacher guides and pupil worksheets were compiled from basic courses of study. Special techniques were developed, among them a plan for skillful questioning after the telecasts to ascertain individual difficulties of pupils, assignment of projects and homework to provide for individual differences, and a plan for quick, efficient testing of achievement.

In Miami, classes of 600 were taught entirely in a large-class situation. In North Carolina, a statewide version of the experiment included three educational and several commercial stations. In Philadelphia, large classes in major subjects were scheduled three periods per week and average-sized classes two periods per week to permit testing, answering of questions, and laboratory work.

Other patterns have emerged through necessity or imaginative approaches. Where there are critical teacher shortages, or where small enrolments make it uneconomical to hire teachers of advanced science, high-school students have been able to qualify for college by studying filmed TV courses in chemistry and physics. No classroom teachers were assigned; small groups were scheduled to receive the courses in a pattern of independent study. And in Pittsburgh, where lack of funds closed the summer school, pupils were able to take advanced or "repeat" courses by TV.

NEW VENTURE

One very new venture in educational TV is one which is to begin next January, when TV lessons will be beamed from an airplane which will reach a potential of 5,000,000 school and college pupils in six states. The central office is located at Purdue University. This experiment represents the first attempt to plan and coordinate common curriculums over state as well as county and district lines. The results will probably provide additional knowledge of the medium which will unfold new variations of service.

At this time, the results of teaching by TV cannot be fully evaluated. There are, however, important indications, some of which have significance for education in general as well as for education by TV. Studies have revealed that children taught in large classes learn facts, information, and skills as well as, or better than, those taught by traditional methods. However, research in TV instruction has reemphasized the need for expanded research in many facets of education. It has been difficult to compare learnings by TV with learnings without TV in such "intangibles" as ability to think critically, human relationships, citizenship attitudes, and group participation.

In TV teaching, individual differences among pupils have not presented as much of a problem as had been anticipated. Bright pupils tend to progress faster and more independently and are not impeded by the questions of slower pupils. Average and slower pupils benefit from visual, verbal presentations which do not depend for effectiveness on pupils' writing and reading skills.

TEACHER NEEDED, TOO

The TV set will not supplant the classroom teacher, whose skills and attitude may determine the degree of success of TV teaching. But full-time TV teachers have time to prepare lessons carefully, using unique resources not available to classroom teachers. This relieves the classroom teacher of some of the burden of preparation and allows her more time to prepare for other classes in her schedule. Teacher time released by the large-class organization provides the time necessary to give extra service to small groups of gifted or slow pupils.

The development of classroom-use of TV in schools and colleges warrants careful and objective study. Its prime purpose is the improvement of instruction, not the supplanting of teachers. Whether the cost is justified must be determined by the value of the service in each situation in response to needs. All that has been accomplished to date is but a superficial probing of the huge potential. As more is learned about TV, new vistas will be opened.

At this point educators may take one of several attitudes toward educational TV. They may, of course, ignore the entire matter in the belief that the phenomenon is temporary and sooner or later will disappear. They may adopt the attitude of passive observation from the sidelines as they wait for the findings of others on which they may base more positive reactions. Or they may accept, as educators, parents, and responsible citizens, the opportunity to cooperate in the development of this new medium, intelligently and constructively, so that it offers maximum service to society.

H. G. Wells has said: "History seems more and more a race between catastrophe and education." Herein lies an invitation to opportunity. •

Tomorrow's Youth and Tomorrow's Citizens

WILLIAM C. KVARACEUS

In Citizenship and a Free Society: Education for the Future

CITIZENSHIP behavior – like all behavior–should be viewed as the interaction between inner and outer forces, that is, an interaction between the individual and his culture. It is necessary, then, when considering the growth and development of the young adult into citizenship to learn about his attitudes, habits, and behavioral sets. Then we must take into consideration the socio-economic-cultural forces that form the youngster's effective environment or his primary frame of reference. Out of the interaction of all these inner and outer forces flows the behavior which may be studied in the light of current criterions of what constitutes the "good citizen" within a society.

As a transitional period to adulthood, the teen-age years, especially in our civilization, are accompanied by many pressures which make them a turbulent time. Living through this period, the maturing child may undergo learning experiences that will help to steer him in the direction of worthy and effective citizenship. Or he may encounter experiences which turn him in the opposite direction to become an adult who slights his civic and social responsibilities. The school has a mandate to see that sufficient forces can be controlled and marshaled so that the goals of effective citizenship in our society are achieved by all youth.

William C. Kvaraceus is Professor of Education, Boston University, Massachusetts. Reported from Citizenship and A Free Society: Education for the Future, *edited by Franklin Patterson, the 30th Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1960, Chapter II, 16-32.*

The objectives of a citizenship training program for tomorrow's citizens will not be achieved through the adoption of one course of study or one set of textbooks for all learners. It has been too easy to fall into the trap of the stereotype in discussing the American adolescent character and the American adolescent subculture. While there are some common traits and characteristics which may be pointed out, it is still true that one adolescent may differ from another in many dimensions. Adolescent needs vary according to abilities, interests, specialized talents, home and ethnic backgrounds, class status, future goals, and acquired knowledge and experience.

All these variables must be taken into consideration in planning local programs geared to local and individual needs. Citizenship education programs will need to be differentiated to meet the significant and individual variations noted in the classroom.

The way of life in the students' immediate environment not only determines their patterns of citizenship behavior to a large extent but also indicates the needs that must be met through the school's program for developing citizenship.

It will be helpful here to examine a number of dominant trends which are prominent in the "generalized culture" and which have implications for future citizenship in the United States.

DOMINANT TRENDS

The future citizen of the United States will probably be a resident of a megalopolis – one of those stretching in unbroken chains of heavily populated cities in widely separated regions of the country. Small-town and rural citizenship, with its face-to-face intimacy, will give way to the impersonality and anonymity of the large urban clusters. The local citizen will find himself in a relationship more remote from those who carry on civic and political business. The vote he casts will appear to count for less than before. He is likely to feel less well represented in local, state, and national governments.

There is real danger, as the social distance between the vote caster and the vote getter widens, that civic lethargy and disinterest will increase. The bureaucratic organization of the city political machine, the multiplication of minority groups with specialized interests, and the manipulations of lobbying interests which breed in the larger urban communities are likely to leave the future citizen feeling both helpless and voteless. How to prepare a youngster for the role of effective citizenship in the megalopolis of the future will present a major problem to those revising and rebuilding school curriculums.

KINDS OF MOBILITY

There are three kinds of mobility that have implications for the education of our future citizens. First, there is actual physical mobility as recorded in frequent changes of address. One out of every five families in the United States today has an annual change of address. Families on the move represent, at best, transient citizens. Lacking permanent residence and roots, the transient citizen may fail to register and to vote; he may feel that long-range community concerns are not important to him; and he may convince himself that his thinking contributes little to the more permanent social and civic and political life of the community. Building effective citizenship in transitory community living in the education of future adults must receive a high priority from the curriculum planners.

Second, there is the mobility of the world traveler, who can visit and see foreign lands and people, thanks to rapid and inexpensive transportation. Visiting and working in foreign countries, as so many American citizens now do, can result in an effective travel diplomacy as it engenders better understanding of other nations. The American citizen will need to know much more than the geography of other nations. He will need language competency as well as understanding of the history, culture, and political systems of other peoples. He will need to turn his focus from "standards of living" to "standards of life," as found in his own country as well as in all the other nations of the world.

Third, there is the mobility of social status. This concerns the curriculum planners, also. The hope and the fantasy of a "classless society" will give way to the realities of a more clear-cut, stratified society. Vertical mobility will be less frequently observed in the future, except for the large reservoir of vertically mobile ethnic groups, such as the Negro and Puerto Rican. Psychic insulation between subgroups will present major problems of communication and cooperation.

"Good" or "bad" citizen behavior often stems from the individual's subculture or special milieu and reflects a complex interplay of cultural forces which tend to reinforce or encourage approved or disapproved conduct. For example, running for public office, going to the polls, becoming informed on social and civic issues, respecting other persons' points of view and property may represent a way of life of the upper classes and may reflect special and unique focal concerns within the citizen's primary reference group. Failing to vote or to take an active interest in local, state, national, and international affairs may relate to a way of life followed by a large segment of the citizenry of this country. Their concerns, values, and characteristic patterns of behavior are the outcomes of a well-formed cultural system.

CLASS DIFFERENCES

The terms "lower class," "upper class," and "middle class" ring harshly on the American ear. But they are used here to refer to systems of behavior and concerns; in other words, to cultural systems, and not to economic groups as conventionally defined. There is a strong tendency in citizenship education to overlook or to gloss over the cultural implications and the realities of class differences with the conviction that "all men are created equal."

Citizenship education programs must aim to introduce and to strengthen within all subgroups of our stratified society an interested, active, and thoughtful participation of all members, lest the civic and political life of the United States become the exclusive concern of the middle and upper classes. How to encourage citizens from the lower classes to show a more active concern and interest in the civic, social, and political life of city, state, and nation represents a major challenge for educators. Hitherto, the citizen, young or old, who has been born and bred in the lower-class strata has been either ignored or exploited by the dominant middle and upper classes in the power structure of the average American community.

A classless society is not conceivable in the forseeable future. Nevertheless, effective citizenship education in the great American public school system must continue to insure social mobility. At the same time, the public schools should undertake to develop a civic and social consciousness and concern that have been lacking in the membership of the lower-class groups.

There are a number of other factors which need consideration as plans are made for the better education of youth for citizenship in the last half of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century. There is, for example, need of a focus on what has been called "positive nationalism" as well as international understanding. Growing concern that American education may be failing to prepare students to live in an international, interdependent, divided world has been voiced by Henry M. Halsted of the staff of the Educational Policies Commission. Halsted presented four imperatives or "musts" if American citizens are to be internationally competent:

1. They must know precisely what they believe and why they believe it.
2. They must be able to explain and discuss effectively the aims, ideals, and accomplishments of American democracy.
3. They must have a clear and accurate understanding of world Communism.
4. They must revive their faith in the democratic ideal and in themselves.

WORLD-WIDE CITIZENSHIP

Citizenship in the classrooms of the present, and even more of the future, must equate local responsibility with world-wide responsibility and must enable the present and future citizen to match means with desirable ends. Only through the development of a positive nationalism, with due concern for the rights, privileges, and responsibilities of neighbor nations on the shrinking and crowded globe, can there be found any hope for the future.

These are but a few of the current trends which make up the "generalized" culture of society in the United States. But it has been possible here to draw attention to some of the needs, opportunities, and obligations that face the curriculum planners whose aim is to prepare the youth of the nation for effective and responsible citizenship in the local community, the state, the nation, and especially in the world. Local citizenship in the United States already has come to mean world citizenship. •

Group Forces Affect Learning

LELAND P. BRADFORD

In Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors

Leland P. Bradford is Director of the National Training Laboratories, National Education Association. Reported from Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, *XXIII (April 1960), 116-22.*

THE forces which affect group behavior are many and dynamic. Group morale and efficiency are easily disturbed. Relationships shift in the group. It is necessary for the teacher to acquire an understanding of the major forces present in most groups, for diagnostic sensitivity to their interplay is necessary if the teacher is to use group forces to increase individual learning.

Group forces can be used to enhance learning. But they can be utilized only as attention is given to group building and maintenance as well as to subject-matter teaching. What is required of the teacher who is successful in this relationship?

He must be sincerely committed to the concept of a class group and convinced that group forces can increase individual learning. He must have diagnostic sensitivity to the emotional factors present in the group as well as the consequences of behavior on both task and building levels.

He must be able to help develop a structure within the class group by which learning goals can be established and accepted, learning tasks can be accomplished, and learning difficulties analyzed.

He will then be able to relinquish carefully and deliberately to the group much of his traditional control. This, perhaps, is one of the most difficult barriers to overcome. If he has sought gratification through maintaining a central controlling, dominating, distant teacher role, he may too easily seek evidence that the class cannot take responsibility for improving learning climate and approaches, and quickly take back control he has relinquished.

He needs to be able to recognize the even greater gratification of the class success, even though the credit is spread throughout the class.

It needs to be clearly seen that there is nothing soft in working with a group. The path to group development and continued group maintenance can be studded with difficulties. The generation and release of human forces through involvement and participation do not result in easy agreement or an even flow of action. Yet the results in increased learning and growth usually far exceed any difficulties encountered.

At the same time that the teacher must relinquish some controls, he needs to be clear as to which controls to maintain for a while and what his various functions should be. He needs to be able to mix the roles of class builder with subject-matter teaching. To do this, he needs to be comfortable as a group member. For the process of group formation to be successful, he must assume a member role, although a special one.

Where can the teacher develop insights and skills to discern the forces within the group in order to work effectively with the class as a group? Little, if any, of his previous experience fits him for this task. Teacher-training institutions are only beginning to recognize the importance of group forces on individual learning. The acquisition of such skills does not fit readily into the present typical teacher-training or in-service program. However, experience now *is* available indicating how this aspect of teacher training could be carried out.

For the past 15 years the National Training Laboratories of the NEA has been experimenting with a process of unstructured group training for the development of more effective leadership and membership understandings and skills. Interestingly, this approach to learning is finding application from first grade through college.

The formation and development of a group, and its continued maintenance, are basically experiences in the creation of society. A new group must develop a power structure, a common task or goal, patterns of effective communication, varying procedures for working—in short, a culture, a set of laws, procedures for dealing with task and human problems, differentiation of functioning, a process of evaluation and change.

TRAINING-GROUP SITUATION

In a structured group, these ingredients are already present. In an unstructured training-group situation, usually meeting intensively for a number of hours a day over a period of two to three weeks, the group members must create and develop the structure and process of the group. From this experience, they can learn not only about group development and functioning but also about their own ability to work effectively with others on a membership basis.

Imagine, if you will, 12 to 15 teachers (actual or potential) entering a group situation in which they will work intensively for some days. The group trainer begins by indicating that the group task, as he sees it, is to work on the development of the group and that he hopes they will continuously analyze whatever they do. He says further that he will *not* serve as the group leader. He doesn't say who will or even whether there should be a leader. He says nothing about procedures or about expectations of member behavior.

Then he becomes silent. Essentially, he has blurred, or made ambiguous, important ingredients of any group—leadership, task, procedures, norms, expectations of behavior. After a prolonged, and sometimes painful, silence, the members rush in to fill the vacuum the trainer has created. As they rush in, each with a desire to develop a situation most comfortable to him, every person brings out his own way of responding to social situations.

In the beginning there are pulls and hauls in the group as status symbols are exchanged and various pressures for leadership and for acceptance of personal goals are made. The trainer aids the group in examining periodically its problems and difficulties. Gradually the group comes to realize that a common goal and task must be fashioned out of the desires, wishes, and purposes of all. Gradually people begin to listen more intently to others. The decibels decrease as people stop shouting at one another and begin to listen. Gradually a set of norms or standards develop and become accepted — that all should have a chance to participate, that no one should manipulate the group, that no one should overdominate the situation.

Each member has a chance to learn about his own difficulties, as well as the difficulties of others, in becoming an effective member of the group. Each person has a chance to understand better his own need systems and the consequences of his behavior on others.

Out of the slow and somewhat difficult creation of a group usually comes far greater sensitivity to others, improved diagnostic awareness of the many complexities of group behavior, increased skills in working effectively with others in group situations. With this experience, people are able to understand and utilize cognitive information from research about group and individual behavior.

If, prior to or along with their regular preparation, teachers could include intensive experience in such an unstructured group situation, then later preparation could include systematic courses in individual and group behavior. In addition, teachers in preparation should have opportunities to observe clinically class situations from the standpoint of group behavior, as well as opportunities to practice leadership skills on both task and maintenance levels. Then teachers would be better able to help mobilize group forces to increase individual learning, no matter what the subject area. ●

THE teacher had assigned a composition on "Which of My Parents Works Harder." Asked which one he was going to write about, David replied, "I'm going to write about both my parents; I don't want to be the reason for any disputes in our house."—From *The Christian Science Monitor.*

Can We Compare Apples with Grapes?

The Futility of Accrediting

HENRY M. WRISTON

In The Journal of Higher Education

I NOTE that there is to be a new review of the broad problem of accreditation by the National Commission. My opinion on the general situation is requested. Perhaps this is because I have had experience in the field, having served with the Board of Review of the North Central Association and having been president of that organization when the new "standards" were adopted. I was also a member of the Association of American Universities at the time that the accreditation procedures were still in full operation. In reaching a conclusion, therefore, my philosophical bias is more the fruit of experience than the other way round. I did not take the road to Damascus before I had stoned the prophets.

I have never regretted seeing the Association of American Universities retire from the field of accreditation. It did not have the machinery, or money enough to create the machinery, to do a responsible job. There was no rationale behind the order in which the colleges were examined. In many instances, the examination seemed to be scandalously superficial. In one fairly large institution with which I was intimately familiar, it occupied two men four hours. Moreover, once an institution was accredited, it was not reexamined and was never dropped. The acid test of the nonviability of the list was the fact that the members of the Association themselves no longer used it as reliable, or even as a useful guide to the admission of candidates to their own graduate schools. To lament the disappearance of a list which rested on such insubstantial foundations is to take the position that it is better to deceive the public than to be honest.

Henry M. Wriston, President Emeritus of Brown University, now is Head of the American Assembly, Columbia University, New York City. Reported from The Journal of Higher Education, *XXXI (June 1960), 327-29.*

It is well known, I hope, that the accrediting procedure has not protected us from wretched and fraudulent institutions. I can add my testimony to that of President Jessup of the State University of Iowa that not a single diploma mill has been put out of business through the operations of accrediting procedures. And I am convinced—on the basis of long observation and participation—that the pursuit of excellence has not been advanced by accrediting procedures. Its values have been offset by throwing the mantle of accreditation over institutions which barely deserve it, if at all.

The stimulus to improvement arising from the effort to get accreditation is an external, indeed a superficial, influence; it has no perceptible relationship to that inner drive for excellence which marks a worthwhile institution. After accreditation is achieved, there is a strong tendency to slack off and revert to one's idols.

In many institutions, if not all, there is distinguished work in some fields, less distinguished work in others, and scandalously inadequate work in some. If accreditation were carried to its logical extreme, each department would have to be accredited separately. This would require elaborate machinery and involve unreasonable costs.

Even if it were possible to do the work of accreditation competently, fairly, and uniformly, that process would further impair the integrity of institutional management; it would accentuate the jockeying for position within institutions, which is already serious; it would emphasize statistical and mechanical "standards" without giving adequate consideration to the total educational pattern. It would make Parkinson's law operate to a degree beyond that which already threatens our educational advance.

The famous Pennsylvania Study of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching revealed in dramatic and conclusive fashion the fact that, generally speaking, colleges get the kind of students they deserve and students get the kind of colleges they deserve. There was no evidence that accreditation or nonaccreditation had anything to do with it.

Accreditation has led to setting up measures like the "Carnegie Unit," which then become substitutes for excellence and take years to extirpate. The accreditation process inevitably is driven to judgments which are essentially superficial, transient in their validity, and a drain on time, energy, and resources that ought to be put into the real obligations of the school. This has long been true. But now that schools of every sort, from the great and complex universities through technical institutions, colleges of liberal arts, teachers colleges, agricultural institutions, and all the rest, are subsumed under one category, the evils inherent in the whole idea have grown along with the proliferation of institutions. Accreditation seeks not only to compare apples with grapes, but both with camels and cod. •

AL Azhar University in Cairo claims to be the world's oldest university. It was founded in 972, three years after the founding of Cairo.

Practices in Few Schools May Become Widespread

Elementary Education:

1985

J. Murray Lee

In Educational Leadership

WHEN we look back at the elementary school of 25 years ago—the school of 1935 – the changes that have taken place during that period are readily recognized. Trends have grown to maturity. Texts have greatly improved, supplementary books and educational films have increased markedly both in number and quality. Television is being adopted, and tapes and recordings serve many uses. In addition, improvement of school buildings, some increase in the training of teachers, and elimination of many small districts have had an influence on the elementary-school program.

But suppose we could look 25 years into the future. It seems safe to predict that the changes during the next 25 years will be more rapid and of greater significance than the changes of the past 25. Public interest in education is high, more money is available for research, and the challenges of the future are pressing.

What will the elementary-school building be like in 25 years? It probably will be a one-story structure accommodating between 500 and 1000. In many areas of the United States the school will be air conditioned as well as heated. There will be many specialized facilities which are not available in the ordinary elementary schools of today—a health and psychological center, library, cafeteria, conference rooms for the use of teachers and parents.

On the staff will be a full-time supervising principal, a school secretary, and secretaries for every four to six elementary teachers. Each classroom teacher will have a master's degree. He will also have an area of specialization, such as social studies, arithmetic, science, measurement, child development, and the other areas needed in the elementary school. The probability is that new patterns of utilizing staff will have developed. At times, the teacher may be working with much larger groups than at present; at other times, with small groups or with individuals.

A great change will have taken place in consultant services available. There will be a child psychol-

J. Murray Lee is Chairman, Department of Elementary Education, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale. Reported from Educational Leadership, *XVII (May 1960), 475-79.*

ogist for every 2,000 pupils. The case load will then be such that the psychologist may work effectively with individual pupils, teachers, and parents. The recognition that the ages five through 12 are of utmost importance in emotional development, second only to the age range birth to five, will thus be implemented by providing the necessary expert help at this age.

Other consultants will include the commonly available ones of nurse, speech correctionist, art and music consultants, and elementary supervisor. Special education facilities will continue to be provided, with more attention being given to children with emotional problems. Adequate medical and dental services will be made available where these cannot be provided for by the home. The physical-education teacher will be able to diagnose the physical and muscular development of children to a much greater extent than is possible today. He will also provide a more intensive, individualized program of muscular development in relation to each child's particular needs.

Each school will have a full-time librarian with a clerical assistant who is in charge of all types of instructional materials. While a library with a full-time librarian is the heart of some elementary schools today, it will be taken for granted in the schools of tomorrow. The library will include books classified by reading level, pamphlets, picture files, record and transcription collections, science and arithmetic equipment, slides, filmstrips, tape collections including TV tape, films, museum-type materials, professional materials for teachers, and files of community resources, including human resources. All of these aids to education will be easily available through adequate clerical help for the librarian.

Connected with the library will be a large individualized instruction room, containing listening booths and a whole series of teaching machines. Tapes may be taken home and used for home study, for all television sets will be equipped to handle tapes.

ORGANIZATION PLANS

There will be considerable experimentation with various patterns of organization. Our lock-step graded system may have disappeared. In the primary grades, a teacher undoubtedly will continue with his class for a two-year period. This will mean that children will have the opportunity to mature during a span of the present first and second grade without the usual pressures on the first-grade teacher. The same plan may be followed during the third and fourth grades.

The intermediate grades seem to offer more opportunity for a variety of plans of organization than do the primary grades. Basic to any plan will be a consideration of the best available experiences for boys and girls in all areas rather than in one limited area, such as reading. With additional clerical help available to teachers, there will be opportunities to develop better instructional materials, better evaluative materials, and more detailed cumulative records and to conduct better parent-teacher conferences. Not only will parent-teacher conferences be universal, but many will be held over a Phonovision.

In general, the elementary curriculum will have greater flexibility and, at the same time, in certain areas, more uniformity. Television will bring to the classroom many learnings the teacher would find difficult, if not impossible, to supply. Reading will be taught by teachers, thoroughly familiar with the developmental skills in reading, who can supplement these with group or individual instruction. More attention will be given to the development of critical thinking, problem solving, and creative thinking.

In all areas, research will be utilized to a greater extent. Many elementary children will learn a second language taught through television, tapes and recordings, texts, and reading materials. Mathematics and science will undergo rather marked changes. Typing will be a skill universally taught. We will have learned better how to encourage creative expression in the arts. Opportunities for developing appreciation of music and literature will increase as additional materials are made available in recordings and in television tapes.

New materials and methods will be available for enriching programs for gifted children which will really challenge their learning abilities. But programs will also be developed that will provide the nonverbal child with feelings of success. Such programs will be greatly accelerated with the provisions for proper psychological counseling of emotional problems. Breakthroughs in biochemistry may develop techniques of medication which will greatly assist children with learning or emotional problems.

Many of these seemingly visionary ideas are now operating in one or more school systems throughout the United States. The rapidity with which they will become common practice depends on the willingness of school systems and teacher-education programs to intensify their experimentation and research, on increased support for public education, and on the creative use of the products of technology which appear in the offing.

Faced with many implications for change, we should never forget that all proposals need to be evaluated in terms of helping teachers to contribute to the development of the minds and hearts of boys and girls. Our children of tomorrow may quite literally have more worlds to conquer than have the children of 1960. And more problems. Certain of these problems will undoubtedly prove too complex for solution, even by automation, such as: dogs following boys to school, missing handkerchiefs, and the one lost overshoe. •

Whom Are We Educating—and to What End?

The Human Comedy and Education

LLEWELLYN O. GRIFFITH

In Educational Horizons

Llewellyn O. Griffith is Administrative Consultant in the State Office of Public Instruction, Olympia, Washington. Reported from Educational Horizons, *XXXVIII (Summer 1960), 240–44.*

IT is very difficult these days to assess dispassionately the total problem of education. There are so many voices clamoring for recognition, so many pressures being exerted by so many inflexible groups, and so many educational architects with new designs already on the trestle board.

This manuscript is an attempt to stand aside from the rushing opinions of the moment and to reflect thoughtfully on the issues from the vantage point of a more quiet perspective.

The first article of educational faith in America is that education is a good thing. We tell our children that education is a good thing because you can't get anywhere without it. In other words, it is useful, serving a utilitarian or vocational end. An elementary education is worth X number of dollars of income per year, a high-school education is worth X plus number of dollars of income per year, and a college education provides so many more dollars of income per year. So the first purpose of education in America is *"to get somewhere."* This we may, for convenience, call the education of economic man.

Equally central to this philosophy is one which may be referred to as education of the political man. From this republic's beginning, we have accepted the principle that our government cannot survive and progress unless the people are educated to its cherishing, fostering, defense, and advancement. Thus, in textbooks on the introduction to education, we discover that the prime purpose of education, as far as public schools are concerned, is to teach youngsters the obligations of citizenship. Education for the political man *is* assuring. But education conceived wholly as an instrument of the state is subject to certain and swift subversion by political power. For, if schools are primarily to serve the state's necessities, then we are perhaps justified in making junkets to Russia to study firsthand those schoolmasters who are the world's most excellent corruptors of education.

A third article of faith in American education is that education is a social asset. If we can't get anywhere economically without education, it is undoubtedly true that we can't get anywhere socially without it. A democratic people, we are characterized by extraordinary social mobility. It follows that education should provide for children a way of moving upwards in the social scale. The schools have responded nobly, as they always do, with appropriate courses for instilling in young people all the elements of good breeding necessary for the social-scale climb.

It is apparent that a fierce debate is raging between those who wish to educate man for economic, political, and social ends, and those *who wish to educate man as man.* This acrid conflict, with the ensuing debate, has not been the result of a nasty conspiracy of educationists, although it is true that education has suffered by reason of the ineptness of its own teacher training.

Dr. Conant has pointed out that if you want to know what an American school is, you must know where it is, who pays for it, and who runs it. If the public school is not as good as it should be, it is likely because most communities have low expectations for their schools, are indifferent, or have not clearly defined their expectations.

In our schools, pupils may be roughly sorted into four categories: (1) those who can learn and want to; (2) those who cannot learn but want to; (3) those who can learn but don't want to; and (4) those who cannot learn and don't want to. Most American pupils belong in the first two categories. Unfortunately, too many are found in the last two. These are the pupils who take most of the time of teachers and administrators and cost disproportionately to educate or not to educate. Under the law, they are entitled to the opportunity which we extend to all children.

CONDITIONS OF LEARNING

We know that certain conditions of learning must be met if learning is to take place. If schools are to be institutions of learning, these conditions must be met inside the school and must be confirmed outside the school. The school is not invulnerable to the assaults of popular intrusions or hermetically sealed from the moral climate of the neighborhood. These conditions are:

(1) If learning is to take place, a respect for learning must be obvious in the home and in the community. Ideally, it should be a respect for learning for its own sake and not because schooling helps one to get somewhere.

(2) If learning is to take place, there must be a willingness to learn on the part of the student as well as a capacity to learn. In many cases, learning is truly impaired because of limited intelligence. However, in the majority of instances, it is lack of the will to learn that drives teachers to distraction or even out of the profession. Where the willfully ignorant hold sway, where learning is penalized and rewarded only with the teen-ager's adjective "square," the teacher can no longer teach.

(3) Learning takes place when good teaching takes place. Someone

has said that there are three general types of teachers. There is the "custodian" who maintains a protective custody over the children, freeing the home from that responsibility for several hours each school day. There are the "instructors." Masters of subject material, architects of units of study, these are the kinds of teachers who are known as "professional." And, there are teachers who inflame the mind and stir up the imagination—who, in a split second of time, open an insight to the full view of the student so that, no matter how long he lives, he can never forget that moment.

(4) The final condition of learning is that learning be about something significant. The debate about significance is the debate over content, and the debate is resolved only by answering the question, "Whom are we educating and to what end?"

In this human comedy, let me suggest that the answer to that question might well be: man for himself—in the tradition of his own heritage, for his own survival (now in peril), and for the fulfillment of his dreams, his aspirations, and his destiny. What is man? What is his destiny? These seem to me to be the relevant questions for educational philosophers.

The splitting of the atom irrevocably fused the world of man, and the action of our human comedy reached a point of resolution. However, the threat of world destruction does not emerge from nuclear fission but from spiritual and intellectual decay. Man is being hard pressed to discover a polarity of thought and expression commensurate with his unassuaged neuroses. What studies, what labor, what instruction will heal the fission within man and without?

Perhaps he has but one rational choice—the choice of discovering or recovering some affirmations about the nature of God and man which shall have the power to command the universal consent of mankind. The curriculum for the making of such choice is the privilege, trust, and responsibility of the teacher. And I would contend that the central issue before American society is the discovery and development of persons as teachers as are required by the age.

It would seem that education today, as yesterday, has as its one paramount purpose the presentation, the inculcation, the assimilation, and the integration in man of such disciplined wisdom as will best enable him to think humbly *about* and *for* himself. He may, thus, escape the flatlands and view the human comedy from a higher and more objective vantage point. •

MANKIND are always happier for having been happy; so that if you make them happy now, you make them happy 20 years hence by the memory of it.—*Sydney Smith.*

Going Up —
But Not Fast Enough

The Financial Rewards of Teaching

In NEA Research Bulletin

FOR the calendar year 1959, the average salary of teachers was $5,013. This is the first year the salary of the instructional staff in public and secondary schools has exceeded $5,000.

The NEA Research Division's report on the economic status of teachers in 1959-60 finds a few losses and some gains but no striking changes in the salaries of teachers in relation to earnings of other workers in the economy. In general, trends which have been noted in previous years are continued:

- From 1939 through 1959, average annual earnings of all persons working for salaries and wages increased more than the average annual salaries of teachers. However, since 1949, increases in average annual earnings of teachers have exceeded the annual gains of all employed persons, but not enough to recapture the comparably favorable position of teachers' salaries in 1939.
- Gains in average salaries of teachers have exceeded increases in the cost of living each year since 1951. Over the past 10 years, gains in teachers' salaries in excess of cost-of-living increases amounted to 41 percent.
- The average annual earnings of teachers in 1958 were less than 50 percent of the average earnings of a combined group of 17 other professions, including both high-income and low-income groups requiring college graduation.
- Men graduates of the class of 1960 recruited for employment by business and industry were offered starting salaries averaging more than $1,000 above starting salaries in teaching. In fact, these "pace setters" will average more in their first year of employment than the entire teaching staff will average for the school year.

The earnings of all persons working for wages and salaries establish the movement in the economy as a whole. Characteristically, over the past 20 years, teachers' salaries have hovered above the average for all employed persons in some years and below in others. The average annual earnings of all employed persons have increased from $1,264 in 1939 to $4,573 in 1959, a gain of 262 percent. Over the same period, the calendar-year salary of teachers has increased from $1,420 to $5,013, a gain of 253 percent. However, in the past 10 years,

Reported from NEA Research Bulletin, *XXXVIII (May 1960), 49-55.*

teachers' salaries have been gaining a little faster than the earnings of all employed persons. Over these past 10 years, the average annual earnings of all employed persons have increased a total of 31 percent in terms of purchasing power; the comparable increase for teachers was 41 percent.

SALARIES IN 1970

In 1959, the difference between the average calendar-year salary for teachers and the average earnings of all employed persons amounted to $440. If both groups continue to advance at the pace set in the 1950's, it will be 1968 before the advantage for teachers widens to $1,000 (in 1959 dollars), and it will be 1971 before average salaries of teachers exceed the average earnings of all employed persons by as much as 20 percent.

Teachers are included in the broad occupational classification of professional, technical, and kindred workers. This group includes a large number of persons who work in occupations for which college graduation is not a formal requirement. The National Education Association sought, through information from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, the classifications within this wider category in which college education *was* an essential. Among the occupations large enough to be separately coded within the professional-technical group, there were 17 professions (other than teaching) that currently require a minimum of four years of college preparation for an individual to gain admission to employment in the field. These 17 are architects, chemists, clergymen, dentists, dietitians, engineers, foresters and conservationists, lawyers and judges, librarians, natural scientists, optometrists, osteopaths, pharmacists, physicians and surgeons, social and welfare workers, social scientists, and veterinarians. In 1950 these persons made up about a third of the professional-technical workers.

Detailed comparisons have been made from several different viewpoints to determine where on the scale of financial advantage the teachers may be placed. It was learned that—by any basis of comparison—the earnings for teachers are far below the earnings of this representative group of professional workers. The disadvantage of teachers is greatest when the means (the measure commonly called an average) are studied. Selfemployed practitioners in some of the professions earn large amounts which influence the average income more than the median.

Characteristically, salaries in teaching hover close to a midpoint. There is little difference between the mean and median of teachers' salaries.

COMPARED TO PROFESSIONS

When the financial situation of the men and women teachers was compared with the men and women of the 17 other professions in 1958, it was found that there is less inequity between men and women in teaching than in the other professions, and there is a large proportion of low-paid, part-time, and partially prepared women among the 17 selected occupations. However, the earnings of women teachers are substantially lower than those of the other women professionals in the selected group which is limited to college graduates.

Here we see that when we compare college graduates, the women public-school teachers were earning only 78.4 percent as much as the women in the 17 other professions when average earnings were compared, and 85.4 percent as much when median earnings are compared. When college graduates are compared with college graduates in earnings, the evidence is clear that the 17 other professions taken as a group offer both men and women opportunity for higher earnings. Here are some comparisons, made following a study of the facts, which stand out:

1. Only 39 percent of the men teachers earned 6,000 or more; 16 percent earned $7,000 or more; and less than 1 percent earned $10,000 or more.

2. Of the men in the 17 other professions, 76 percent earned $6,000 or more; 66 percent earned $7,000 or more; and 33 percent earned $10,000 or more.

A larger percent of the women in the 17 other professions are in the upper income bracket:

1. Of the women in teaching, 17 percent earned $6,000 or more; 6 percent earned $7,000 or more; and no woman teacher in the sample studied reported earnings of $10,000.

2. Of the women in the other professions, 34 percent earned $6,000 or more; 20 percent earned $7,000 or more; and 6 percent earned $10,000 or more.

STARTING SALARIES

The young person with a college degree is in demand by government, business, and industry. The average starting salaries offered the 1960 male college graduates by businesses and industries, according to the 1960 report by Frank S. Endicott, were: engineers, $6,094; accountants, $5,328; sales, $5,208; general business trainees, $5,088; other fields, $5,484. The average for all fields is estimated at $5,496.

In 1959-60 the median teaching salary schedules for first-year teachers in districts of 30,000 or more population was $4,111. The median salary for beginning teachers for the nation as a whole was still under $4,000.

Thus, there is a gap of more than $1,000 between the beginning salaries scheduled for teachers and the beginning salaries offered men graduates by business and industry. The gap widens with the experience of both groups. The average compensation of the total instructional staff—experienced as well as beginners—in the public schools for the school year 1959-60 was about $300 less than that paid June 1960 graduates recruited by business and industry. On the basis of these salaries, the teaching profession cannot compete for a share of the top graduates. •

Foreign Languages for Children

JOHN B. CARROLL

In The National Elementary Principal

John B. Carroll is Professor of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Reported from The National Elementary Principal, *XXXIX (May 1960), 12-15.*

DESPITE the increasing popularity of foreign-language instruction in the elementary school (FLES), research has thus far said very little either about what benefits can be expected of such programs or about how to conduct them.

Among the few more or less self-evident facts that probably do not require complete experimental demonstration is that many children *are* able to learn a second language quite readily and easily. There are those cases in which the kindergarten or first-grade child is required to learn – as a second language – the language of instruction in the school. In our own country, this is true for many Navaho children in the Southwest as well as for Puerto Rican children on the Eastern seaboard. Here there is enough experience to state positively that the younger the child, the better and faster he learns English. Further, the children learn best when they are associated in classes and on the playground with English-speaking children.

The FLES movement, however, concerns an American, native-English-speaking child being given instruction in a foreign language—French, Spanish, German, or Russian—for short periods of time spaced throughout the school week. This situation is hardly comparable to the one mentioned above.

Do such children learn languages faster? Before we could answer this question, we would need to measure how much the typical child can learn in a given amount of time under a skilled foreign-language teacher, as compared with adolescents or adults under comparable conditions. We do have some information about children's ability to learn accurate pronunciation of foreign languages. One foreign-language teacher, for example, believes that "the ability of all children to reproduce foreign sounds not present in English seems to be in inverse proportion to their age." He adds that even the sixth graders he taught were far superior to typical university students in pronunciation.

There seems to be, then, some solid basis for the belief that young children can acquire good pronunciation more rapidly and easily than adults can under normal conditions.

But what about other phases of language learning?

Dunkel and Pillet, at the University of Chicago's Elementary School, gave a general test in French to their second-year *elementary*-school class and to several *college* classes in their first and second quarters. The elementary-school pupils were not too far behind the college students; in fact, in one comparison, one-fifth of the children were above the median of the college student.

But it is difficult to evaluate the research results obtained so far because it is hard to compare the amounts of time actually spent by the students. It is quite possible that time spent is a more crucial factor than *age* as such. In fact, except possibly with regard to the learning of pronunciation, there is considerable doubt that young children learn foreign languages any better and faster given the same opportunities and amount of time.

If the sheer amount of time spent on language learning is the most important variable, the question of whether young children can learn faster and better than adolescents may be somewhat irrelevant.

LANGUAGE APTITUDE

I have been interested in individual differences in foreign-language aptitude. It has commonly been supposed that such aptitude is related to general intelligence. It may indeed be true that certain kinds of foreign-language instruction places a premium on general intelligence, but my own research findings suggest that this is not the case for courses taught with proper emphasis on speaking and hearing the foreign language.

In Cleveland, under the so-called "Cleveland Plan" of FLES instruction for gifted children in grades one to six, a substantial number of children of high intelligence were not doing as well as might be expected. My own tests showed that these children seemed to be lacking in language aptitude. Although gifted children *on the average* may do better in foreign languages, it is probably a mistake to select children for foreign-language instruction on the basis of intelligence test scores.

It is probably also a mistake to select children on the basis of reading skills, because present-day audio-lingual methods put no stress on reading skills until the child has been well started in using the spoken foreign language. Some poor readers get much encouragement from their success in foreign languages.

If children are selected at all, a short preliminary trial of language-learning success would probably be the best presently available method. Children who can imitate foreign-language sentences quickly and accurately are most likely to succeed. It would seem that foreign-language learning ability is almost a special talent like musical or artistic ability (but independent of these, of course).

No reports are available to give

solid answers to such questions as: How long do children retain their knowledge of foreign languages acquired in the elementary school? Do children taught a foreign language in elementary school have any advantage when they study the same foreign language in high school or college? Do they have any advantage when they study a *different* foreign language in high school or college? How well can an adult relearn a language studied as a child? Substantial studies to answer these questions are needed.

The scanty studies now available do not give much comfort. In them, no account is taken of the possible variations in the *quality* of foreign-language training given to the subjects. For all we know, children who receive continuous and superior foreign-language instruction in elementary school might show impressive superiority over high-school and college students without such training.

PRIMARILY ORAL

The most important insight into methods of teaching FLES comes not from traditional educational research but from a consideration of the nature of language as primarily a *spoken* means of communication. It is natural to start language study by learning to understand and speak simple phrases and sentences before one tries to read or write them.

Although it cannot be said on the basis of research results that reading and writing should *not* be introduced before grade 3 or 4, it would seem wisest not to do so, because in this way one can capitalize on the ease with which young children can handle the spoken aspects of language without needing written materials. The child must have, of course, good models of speech to imitate. And, while tapes and televised language teaching may become important, it is undoubtedly of critical importance for the classroom teacher to supplement such teaching.

All reports of successful FLES teaching stress the importance of carrying on class work in the foreign language. Materials are now available for most of the commonly taught languages which will enable the teacher to carry on lively classroom activities in which the children learn simple commands, questions, dialogues, songs, plays, and the like. There is no one method which should be emphasized. Some who have compared methods of instruction emphasizing respectively, vocabulary, structure learning, and "experiential" learning, have found that each method has its own particular advantages and have concluded that the ideal method is a combination of methods.

As J. C. Morrison puts it, "The best learning will be achieved through daily, purposeful, systematic instruction in the vocabulary, the language patterns, the sounds, rhythm, and intonation [of the language being taught] in a stimulating experiential social setting." •

Let the Candidate Know about Scoring

Time Limits and the Behavior of Test Takers

WILLIAM G. MOLLENKOPF

In Educational and Psychological Measurement

William G. Mollenkopf is with The Procter & Gamble Company. Reported from Educational and Psychological Measurement, *XX (Summer 1960), 223-30.*

STATING the time limit for a test plays an important part in defining the nature of the task to those who are about to take the test. The candidate has a right to know what you want him to do. He has a right to know whether he is expected to finish and to know how you intend to score the test. He also should have a clear understanding of what he should do if time runs out.

An eminent authority on the theory of mental tests, Dr. Gulliksen, has asserted that "at present most tests are a composite in unknown proportions of speed and power." The context in which this remark was made was an attempt to distinguish between power and speed. I quote his remark here as basis for my own observation that in some instances our tests leave the candidate with insufficient guidance as to how we intend to regard accuracy or correctness as compared with rate of work. It may not be an undue warping of Dr. Gulliksen's statement to assert that one reason why a test may be an unknown mixture of power and speed is that the candidates weren't clearly told what was expected of them, time-wise. Consider for a moment some examples. "You will be given all the time necessary to attempt every item," is reassuring but we are not told whether anyone ever stayed far into the night. Students taking another test are told, "If you work at average speed, you will have plenty of time to read and answer all of the questions." A wide variety exists in such statements made to candidates about to take tests. Some of these are clear and explicit about what testees are to expect, and some are not so clear.

About 10 years ago I had the experience of carrying out a study on the effects of time limits and item placement on item-analysis data. Two types of test material, verbal analogies and arithmetic reasoning, were employed. They were given to two groups of high-school students. First the students were given a time limit so fixed that few, if any, were likely to finish. Then, using different colored pencils, they were given enough additional time so that everyone could consider every item. After the results were tabulated, it was interesting to examine the rank orderings of the students under the two time conditions.

For the *verbal* material, it seemed to matter little whether the test was given as a highly speeded affair or with a generous time limit: The rank ordering of students was just about the same. While, naturally, total scores tended to run higher when there was ample response time, those who scored highest, relatively speaking, under one condition also scored highest under the other, and there were no dramatic changes in relative standing.

TIME MAKES A DIFFERENCE

For the *arithmetical* reasoning type of problem, however, there were some students whose relative positions within the group were markedly affected by the timing imposed. The added time permitted certain "slow but sure" students to show their stuff and to come up appreciably in their standings. For this type of material, the setting of the time limit did make a big difference to some of the students involved. Despite the high correlation between the speed and power scores, some students nevertheless did not show up nearly as well in arithmetic reasoning when the time limit was stringent as when it was generous.

Now I'm not trying to say that by giving them more time, morons become geniuses. But I am saying that for the problem-solving type of activity involved in the mathematical reasoning items used in this study, a somewhat different type of test behavior was apparently observed and measured with the generous time limit than had been the case under the highly speeded condition.

TIME LIMIT NEEDED

There are some types of tasks in which the whole point is missed if time is not an element in the performance. An example is the clerical-type test in which almost any candidate could get a perfect or near perfect score if time were not a factor. For such tests, the whole point is how many tasks of a very simple type the subject can complete in a given time.

And certain situational performance tests need a time limit to get results. In *Assessment of Men* (OSS Assessment of Staff, 1948) or in Morgan's more recent *The O.S.S. and I* (1957), a complex task (such as crossing a stream with a piece of heavy equipment without getting it or yourself wet) is to be accomplished within a given period of time—say half an hour. The amount of time provided is a vital part of the task. The period must be long enough so that significant behavior can emerge, but also short enough so that there is a distinctly heavy pressure bearing on the group.

In his *Manual of Mental and Physical Tests* (1914), Whipple maintained that " . . . time measurements become more significant and reliable in proportion as the task becomes more mechanical and less intellectual." I disagree with this sweeping assertion and prefer rather to maintain that the nature of the timing should depend on what is to be measured. If time is an inherent aspect of a given complex performance, then the time limits employed should be such as to make time an appropriately significant factor in the resulting score.

One very troublesome consequence of imposing shorter time limits on objective tests than will allow most candidates to try all of the items is that it leads to guessing. As time runs out, the candidate who sees that he still has many items to go may take one of several courses of action. He may continue to plug along, he may try to speed up, or he may engage in hurried and more or less random marking of responses to the remaining items.

INFLUENCES

What will he do? That depends. What he does is influenced by what (if anything) you tell him about how you are going to score the test. But what he does also tends to be influenced by other factors, among them how much of a gambler he tends to be. Mind you, I'm talking here about what sometimes are referred to as "partially speeded" tests, not the pure speed measure involving only simple tasks to be carried out as fast as possible.

Guessing is a problem primarily because the people who do not finish do not act predictably. Different candidates do different things and affect their scores in different ways. And let me anticipate myself here a bit by saying that no statistical adjustment of the scores after the fact can control the problem, because this is like trying to catch the bees after the hive is upset. The proper thing to do, it seems to me, is to take steps to prevent luck from making any significant difference in the scores.

NEED ENOUGH TIME

One ready way to accomplish this is to ensure that all or most all candidates have enough time to try every item. And, as I stated above, I believe that candidates have a right to know how you plan to score the test and have an understanding of what they should do if time runs out. If the time limit must be set so that the proportion not finishing cannot be considered negligibly small, then my own preference would be for instructing the candidate that he will automatically receive u/k points of credit for items he has not reached, where u represents the number of items not atempted and k is the number of alternatives per item. To the extent that candidates take this automatic credit—a sure thing—in preference to gambling, the chance element in test scores due to random marking of untried items would be brought under some control. Further, the timid would profit equally with the bold. •

Forward-Looking Practices Grow Out of These

Emphases in Elementary Social Studies

WILHELMINA HILL

In Social Studies in the Elementary School Program

Wilhelmina Hill is Specialist for Social Science in the U. S. Office of Education. Reported from U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1960, No. 5, Social Studies in the Elementary School Program, *Chapter 4, "Content in the Social Studies,"* 32-47.

THROUGHOUT the elementary-school social-studies program, a number of important emphases are appearing. These have developed in terms of pupil needs and social trends. At times these emphases take the form of a social-studies unit and at other times they are continuing strands which are included in many units over a period of years. Often they permeate the entire school day and are not confined to social studies alone. Out of these emphases are growing forward-looking practices which will enable the elementary child of today to assume his responsibilities with regard to the world in which he lives.

Citizenship.—One aspect of social studies and social living considered highly important for all pupils in a democratic society is citizenship. Boys and girls can learn early in their school life about the rights and responsibilities of themselves and others through their daily experiences of working and playing in groups. Children can also learn many things about government, both directly and indirectly. Some elementary schools have student councils, which carry on various responsibilities and activities. They make real contributions to the school program in such matters as safety, hospitality, health, schoolground care and beautification, and celebration of holidays. And when children select representatives to a school committee or council, they are learning about leadership and "followership" and having their first experiences in representative government.

Economic Education.—In recent years, increased recognition has been given to economic education as an important area of learning at the elementary-school level. Children can learn a great deal about work and about workers and various kinds of management. Through their various school and home experiences, children can learn about saving and banking, budgeting, earning money, and buying goods and services. They may, for example, have a play store or post office and they may purchase tickets for sport excursions, often having earned all or part of the necessary money. By many methods, ways are being found to help children toward understandings which will lead them on the path toward economic efficiency, both now and in their later lives.

Conservation Education.—Since it deals with the wise use and conservation of our natural resources in their relation to man, conservation education is receiving widespread attention in elementary schools. The children may develop a small watershed, build check dams, and plant cover crops on the school's grounds, at their own homes or farms, or at camp to save the soil. They may plant trees and establish bird feeding stations. Children who engage in such activities for conservation and the wise use of our resources gain much skill, understanding, and enjoyment in their natural environment. For them conservation becomes a way of life.

Aviation.—Interest in airplanes and other aspects of an air-space age is high. As children learn about aviation and its increasing dramatic developments, they can gain many science and social-studies understandings. They can learn global geography, including knowledge about the people, lands, oceans, and routes over which planes fly. Aviation education is frequently taught in units which can be found at almost any grade level when the children have an interest in planes and/or space flight. It is also widely taught as a part of transportation units, especially at the third-grade level. New developments and happenings in aviation and space flight are continuously studied as a part of current events.

Technological and Social Developments.—In this decade, technological and social developments have been appearing with dramatic and sometimes shattering impact on man. Accompanying these new developments in automation, space flight, jet planes, atomic energy, and medical science are changes and transitions in society—in the way in which men live. All of these developments are important in the lives of children now in elementary school. Some of these new developments may be found in the regular school texts and references. Others may not. Publishers and their authors revise their texts as frequently as they can but it is almost impossible for them to keep up with current developments due to the rapidity of change. This means that much social-studies content must come from the news and thus becomes an integral part of current affairs as well as of the regular social-studies curriculum.

MORAL VALUES

Spiritual and Moral Values.—The development of spiritual and moral values is a concern of the entire school curriculum, but it has special significance in the social-studies program. Much of our historical and cultural heritage is at the heart of the social-studies content. Through meaningful study and activities, children learn basic elements of American culture. They learn about esteemed ideals of democracy and about spiritual and moral values which have made our country a leader among nations. Under our Constitution there is a separation of church and state, and certain responsibilities in the matter of spiritual values are left with the church and home. But social-studies programs usually contain some content about the place of religion and the church in American life. In some places children may visit one or more churches as a part of becoming acquainted with their community. In intermediate grades children learn something about the religion of people in other countries in connection with their study of geographic areas. Practices vary from state to state as to the way in which religious education, as such, is available to children; but the development of spiritual and moral values by our children is a concern of schools everywhere.

OUR HERITAGE

Our American Heritage.—Teachers should help boys and girls learn as much as possible about our heritage. Most schools give much attention to teaching the history of our nation, and integrated history and geography programs are to be found in several of the grades. Children also learn about their historical and cultural heritage through poetry, biographies, stories, films, recordings, pictures, and many other media. Since children and young people, as well as older citizens, travel abroad or meet foreign visitors in this age of rapid transit, it becomes increasingly important that children understand and respect their own cultural and historical background if they are to interpret it well to others. Americans have one of the richest and most varied cultural backgrounds in the world because of the melting pot from which our population is formed. It is important that schools place much emphasis on helping children to know and understand this heritage, which is theirs to enjoy and protect and which makes our nation great.

GEOGRAPHIC

Geographic Understandings.—More important than ever before are geographic understandings in this age of aviation and space flight. To be able to understand the news on television and radio and in the newspapers and magazines, it is imperative to have a good background in geography. Children begin to gain this background when they learn about their neighborhood and community and go on to gain geographic understandings about their state, the nation, and the world. Learning about the peoples of the world and their relation to their environments is an important focus of learning. Geography related to current happenings in the world has a high priority for attention. This type of geography often requires considerable research activity on the part of pupils and teacher to secure adequate information about the geographic factors needed for fully understanding items in the news.

Current Affairs.—Social studies can be made interesting and up to date through current affairs. What children see on television and screen, hear on radio, read in newspapers and magazines, and observe in their travels and community life is usually tied in with their social-studies program. Such events as the voyage of the *Nautilus* provide excellent material for social studies. They may give leads to units, area studies, or depth studies of a particular country. They enrich social-studies learnings and experiences from day to day.

HUMAN RELATIONS

Human Relations.—During elementary-school years, human relations has become an important aspect of social learning and living. At the same time that children are learning about social-studies subject matter, they are also having experiences in participation, cooperation, leadership, and responsibility, which help them grow into effective citizenship. They learn how to get along well with other children and with adults.

In addition to learning how to participate effectively in group situations, children are learning about the history of their rights and responsibilities. They learn about the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights at their maturity levels and as their experiences in group living relate to these documents.

International Understanding.—Because of our nation's position in world affairs and the impact of aviation and the space age, international understanding has become increasingly significant for our boys and girls. Emphasis on understanding the peoples of the world, international relations, and international organizations is widespread in our schools. The development of international understanding, however, is being carried on at appropriate places lower in the grades than was formerly the case. Primary children as well as those in kindergartens and nursery schools are having initial experiences and contact with people of other countries through travel, television, books, foreign visitors, and other means. At school and in their communities they may often see and hear visiting teachers and play with children from other lands. They meet parents with foreign backgrounds or interest. They begin early to learn about international organizations through the activities of the Junior Red Cross, Unicef, and Unesco. They attend or participate in observances of an international nature, such as United Nations Day and Pan-American Day.

By the time pupils have reached the third grade their social-studies program should have extended their interests far beyond community life—to the state, the nation, and the world. •

What Is a Decent Standard?

Dare Schools Set a Standard in English Usage?

ROBERT C. POOLEY

In The English Journal

TO the question, "Dare the schools set a standard in English usage?" I shall—in Yankee-fashion—answer with another question: Do we dare *not* to set a standard?

To this there seems to me to be but one answer: We should not and cannot fail to set a standard. We are committed by duty and by conscience to bring every student as close as possible to the attainment of a decent standard of English usage by every means at our command. But what is this decent standard and by what terms do we describe it?

One of the commonest misunderstandings of the point of view of the linguistic scholar with regard to English grammar and English usage is that when he observes and reports changes which take place in the English language, he thereby weakens the position of the English teacher and lowers its standards. It is extremely important to us all to correct this misapprehension and to recognize why the objective study of our language properly interpreted results in a strengthening of standards rather than in laxity. We need to examine what is meant by a standard. It may well be that a misconception of the nature of a language standard is at the root of the misunderstanding.

Robert C. Pooley is Chairman, Department of Integrated Liberal Studies, University of Wisconsin, Madison. Reported from The English Journal, *XLIX (March 1960), 176-81.*

In all matters concerned with human behavior to which standards may be applied, it will be found that such standards, far from being fixed and unchangable, are actually only approximations within a fairly wide range of latitude and tolerance. A standard in human conduct is a sort of gentleman's agreement as to the norm reasonably expected, but behavior superior to this norm and behavior inferior to it are tolerated to a fairly wide degree. When the behavior exceeds the limit of tolerance to the point of becoming noticeable, amusing, embarrassing, or annoying, the standard is violated. But when deviate behavior remains within the range of normally accepted tolerance, the standard may be said to be maintained.

Let me cite one example: A gentleman when seated is expected to rise when a lady enters the room. This is the standard. What are the degrees of tolerance? Behavior may and often does range from a ceremonial rising with a bow and the offering of a chair to a half-hearted semisquat movement as a sort of grudging recognition of the standard. The latter behavior is on the edge of tolerance; if it becomes habitual and noticeable, the offender may be considered a boor. On the other hand, excessive politeness and ceremonial attached to this simple standard becomes amusing or annoying and it also violates the standard of behavior. Within the range between these extremes, the standard is considered to be met.

But social customs also change with time. We must be aware that the norms of expected behavior—in other words the standards—shift from one period to another. Let me remind you that before the turn of the century every hotel, restaurant, and public parlor in which gentlement gathered were adorned with cuspidors, and most private homes possessed them, even if discreetly concealed. Here is a custom once tolerated or taken for granted which today is outside the pale; a hostess would be shocked to be asked to produce a cuspidor.

Now we return to language. Language is a form of human behavior subject to change and to a range of deviation within the range of acceptance tolerance. Let us face these facts in all seriousness. What we call "good English" is a gentleman's agreement covering a range of acceptable behavior, exactly parallel with the observance of standards in other types of human behavior. This range can be described, it can furnish a pattern of behavior, it can set a standard of the sort that an intelligent scholar of English can accept and use.

It remains to define and describe the standard of English usage we may properly set for our classes. I shall quote a definition I wrote nearly 30 years ago, which was adopted by the National Council of Teachers of English, and then I shall set down some particulars:

> Good English is that form of speech which is appropriate to the purpose of the speaker, true to the language as it is, and comfortable to speaker and listener. It is the product of custom, neither cramped by rule nor freed from all restraint; it is never fixed, but changes with the organic life of the language.

SPECIFIC ITEMS

A definition so broad leaves the classroom teacher with a great many specific decisions. To assist in making these decisions I offer a few specific items. Teachers of English should seek to teach the following:

1. The correct uses in speech and writing of **I, me, he, him, she, her, they, them.** (Exception, **it's me.**)
2. The correct uses of **is, are, was, were** with respect to number and tense.
3. Correct past tenses of common irregular verbs such as **saw, gave, took, brought, bought, stuck.**
4. Correct use of past participles of the same verbs and similar verbs after auxiliaries.
5. Elimination of the double negative: we don't have no apples, etc.
6. Elimination of analogical forms:

ain't, **hisn, hern, ourn, theirselves,** etc.

7. Correct use of possessive pronouns: **my, mine, his, hers, theirs, ours.**

8. Mastery of the distinction between **its,** possessive pronoun, and **it's,** it is.

9. Placement of **have** or its phonetic reduction to **v** between **i** and a past participle.

10. Elimination of **them** as a demonstrative pronoun.

11. Elimination of **this here** and **that there.**

12. Mastery of use of **a** and **an** as articles.

13. Correct use of personal pronouns in compound constructions; as subject (Mary and I), as object (Mary and me), as object of preposition (to Mary and me).

14. The use of **we** before an appositional noun when subject; **us,** when object.

15. Correct number agreement with the phrases **there is, there are, there was, there were.**

16. Elimination of **he don't, she don't, it don't.**

17. Elimination of **learn** for **teach, leave** for **let.**

18. Elimination of pleonastic subjects: **my brother he; my mother she.**

19. Proper agreement in number with antecedent pronouns **one** and **anyone, everyone, each, no one.** With **everybody** and **none** some tolerance of number seems acceptable now.

20. The use of **who** and **whom** as reference to persons. (But note, **Who did he give it to?** is tolerated in all but very formal situations. In the latter, **To whom did he give it?** is preferable.)

21. Accurate use of **said** in reporting the words of a speaker in the past.

22. Correction of **lay down** to **lie down.**

23. The distinction between **good** as adjective and **well** as adverb, e.g., He spoke **well.**

24. Elimination of **can't hardly, all the farther** (for **as far as**) and **Where is he (she, it) at?**

This list of 24 kinds of corrections to make constitutes a very specific standard of current English usage for today and the next few years. Some elements in it may require modification within 10 years; some possibly earlier.

Conspicuous by their absence are several which were on usage lists by which we were taught. Examples are: any distinction between *shall* and *will*; any reference to the split infinitive; and objection to *like* as a conjunction, to the phrase "different than," to the expression "He is one of those boys who *is* . . ., and to the use of *myself* as a polite substitute for *me* in "I understand you will meet Mrs. Jones and myself at the station." Also absent is the insistence on the possessive case standing before a gerund.

These items and many others like them will still remain cautionary matters left to the teacher's discretion. In evaluating the writing of a superior student, I would certainly call these distinctions to his attention and point out to him the value of observing them. But this is a very different matter from setting a basic usage standard to be maintained. I think it is fair to say that the items I listed first lie outside the tolerable limits of acceptable, current, informal usage, and that the ones above are tolerated at least, and in some instances are in very general use. •

What Does the Research Show?

The Use of Appraisal Data by Guidance and Personnel Workers

FRED C. PROFF

In Review of Educational Research

Fred C. Proff is Associate Professor of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana. Reported from Review of Educational Research, *published by the American Educational Research Association, XXX (April 1960), Chapter V, 141-47.*

THOUGH progress has been made in test theory and test validity, there remains a disappointing lack of attention to the problem of practical application of appraisal data. Too frequently the teachers, administrators, and guidance workers who are required to utilize the data have a minimum of technical understanding. The potential richness of the data is missed because of their limited training and the pressing necessity of using every means at hand to cope with problems which require immediate, practical solutions in the best interests of the student.

There are many factors which temper and shape interpretation of test data. Unless the personnel worker is trained to interpret these factors, his efforts will yield little to further his understanding of the client or the client's understanding of himself.

Test data have taken on an even greater significance since the enactment of the National Defense Education Act of 1958. Large-scale testing programs are under way in many schools that have not heretofore employed objective measuring instruments to any extent.

There is a considerable emphasis currently on the identification of the talented and this is reflected in a number of studies reporting the characteristics of such youth. Some comment on the work of several researchers in this area will illustrate the necessity for broad knowledge in the use of data. Anderson, Tate, and Smith studied a number of characteristics in a large sample of high-school seniors. After considering the possible influence of variables, such as school size, academic subjects, and sex differences, they concluded that an acceptable criterion for exceptional performance other than the intelligence quotient must be sought. Arnold and Liddle have supported the view that test scores are a foundation on which one builds, not a finished end product.

In a review of current appraisal procedure, Super observed four steps in the process: (*a*) obtaining data about the client, (*b*) drawing inferences from the data which help develop a picture of the client, (*c*) establishing hypotheses derived from the inferences, and (*d*) making predictions of future behavior. If one accepts these as basic elements of the appraisal procedure, he will probably admit that the two intermediate steps represent the difference between effective utilization of knowledge and educated guess work. Many people can accumulate data, and, in practice, the guidance worker too often immediately proceeds to the predictive phase, neglecting the potential effectiveness of the data and invalidating the economy of any prediction.

SCIENCE APTITUDE

Aptitude for science is also an area of great current interest and some research has been conducted in an attempt to throw light on talent in this field. For example, Vineyard studied the influence of academic ability and interest on the choice of a college major in science. He stated that the ACE Psychological Examination Q-score yielded significant information about the kind of ability important for success in science and that scientific and computational scales of the Kuder Preference Record were indicative of the prerequisite interests. He concluded that, though the field of science attracts more than the expected proportion of majors, many more students in college could successfully pursue scientific study. These students constitute a reservoir of talent that would respond to efforts directed toward the development of scientific interest.

Of all the areas of measurement influenced by the National Defense Education Act, achievement and aptitude testing has probably felt the greatest impact. However, the possibility for systematic research in this field extends far beyond the original provisions of the Act. Among a number of researchers who have reported on their work in this area are Henderson and Masten who reported on six predictors of college achievement. Webb employed five in his study of first-year students of dentistry. In another investigation of college students, French found the high-school record more useful for predicting over-all freshman grades than the quality of work in the major field. Belai, Kennedy, and Vineyard also worked with the problem of prediction of achievement at the college level.

Layton and Swanson, comparing scores on the Differential Aptitude Tests at grades 9 and 11, found the Verbal Reasoning Score the best single predictor of eleventh-grade test scores and high-school rank. High School General Educational Development Test scores have been analyzed by Leton. Wellman compared the predictive values of single scores and results of multiple-factor tests of mental ability.

Wilson, and Mohandessi and Runkel sought additional information to add relevance to test results.

The former studied the effects of various educational environments on achievement, and the latter investigators examined some of the socioeconomic factors associated with academic aptitude.

The work of these investigators gives evidence that in achievement testing and academic-aptitude testing the profession is moving toward more effective utilization of data.

Useful work also is being done in the area of relationship of personality to scholastic aptitude. Scarf, studying the differential between the Q and L scores of ACE Psychological Examination for indications of emotional problems, found a high incidence of poor academic achievement and emotional disturbance among the group whose Q-L score differential exceeded the median of 16 percentile points. Holland concluded that success in college can be predicted more effectively if measures of scholastic aptitude are combined with personality measures and suggested the possibility that college achievement is the result of a general cluster of personality and aptitude variables.

Concerning the effective use of appraisal data, there is continued interest in this subject, and research continues. Research, however, has raised many questions and has done little to clarify many basic issues. Guidance and personnel workers make use of appraisal data in many practical ways—to group students, for example, or to plan a curriculum; there is a growing body of respectable research on prediction for such purposes.

On the other hand, it is difficult to find significant research on the use of appraisal data in the counseling interview. Research has all too frequently stressed the use of appraisal data as a mechanical and rational procedure rather than a complex process with both cognitive and conative dimensions. In other words, because of the personal affect inherent in the acceptance or rejection of appraisal data by the client, research designs will have to take account of not only what data are used or learned by the client, but also why they are, or are not, acceptable to the client. Perhaps only practicing counselors will be able, or inclined, to carry through this type of research. •

Appraisal by Children

- The fifth-grade teacher, who always had her picture taken with her class, noticed a pupil looking through the pictures. "Are you looking for a friend?" she asked. "No," he replied, "I'm trying to see which of your classes aged you the most."—From *Dixie Roto Magazine*.
- Kindergartner, showing bathroom scale to a friend: "All I know is, you stand on it and it makes you mad."—From *Philadelphia Newsletter*.

★ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

No Score, Again.—The 86th Congress went home September 2 after taking care of most of its housekeeping details but without passing a major education bill. It came close to that goal, but although federal-aid proponents tried until the very end, they were unable to bring the two Houses together on a school-aid measure.

The Senate, usually considered more favorable to education, had acted in February to pass a two-year bill which would have given the states freedom to allocate federal grants either for school construction or teacher salaries. The House, unwilling to come to grips with the larger educational problems of this decade, met as a Committee of the Whole last May and produced a four-year school construction bill. On two previous occasions, the controversial Powell amendment had complicated the issues, but at this session it was incorporated without too much trouble in the House bill, which was then passed by a small but sturdy margin of 206 to 189.

The House bill would have provided $325 million during each of four years, to be allocated to the states on the basis of school-age population.

The House and Senate were unable to get together to reconcile the different versions of the education bills. The Senate had appointed conferees; the House failed to secure unanimous consent for this purpose and was required to send the request to the House Rules Committee. This committee, designed to act as expediter and traffic cop, operated, in fact, as undertaker for the school-aid bills. Its dominant coalition of conservatives of both parties refused to reconsider its action and effectively kept the school bill bottled up until Congress adjourned.

The 87th Congress will have to start tackling the problem of federal aid to education all over again —and from the beginning.

Continued Support.—While the 86th Congress was unwilling to venture into new educational services, it continued its support for established programs.

In its closing days, the Congress approved the 1961 appropriations for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, including a $489 million item for U. S. Office of Education activities and grants. This is $26 million more than was appropriated for 1960.

The largest item was for payments to federally affected school districts ($250 million); the next largest, for the National Defense Education Act ($173 million). Also provided for were the long established vocational-education programs and the more recently created school-library services.

In fact, Congress extended the

Library Services Act for five more years, authorizing $7.5 million for each year. The new law is essentially the same as the one passed in 1956 when there were an estimated 70 to 80 million Americans in rural areas who had no access to public libraries or were served by grossly inadequate facilities.

Representative Carl Elliott, Democrat from Alabama, told the House that next year, when the original measure expires, "Forty million people in rural America will still have inadequate or no library service. That means that about half . . . of the problem . . . remains. In this period of four years . . . five million books have been bought with the money . . . Two hundred new bookmobiles are now crawling across rural America, laden with 1,000 books each. The states and local communities have enthusiastically entered into the spirit of this bill and, as a result, state appropriations to library services have increased 54 percent and local appropriations have increased 45 percent. Large-scale buying and cataloging of books have cut costs of operations, and the movement toward larger administrative library units has increased efficiency and economy."

Elementary School Issues.—The elementary school should not "strive for dignity" by likening itself to a high school. Instead, it should stick to its last and teach every child the rudiments of all knowledge—reading, writing, speaking, listening, observing, reasoning, computing, discovering, and creating. So said the Educational Policies Commission in a new report issued last month.

The 20-member body made public its views in a statement entitled *Contemporary Issues in Elementary Education*. The 27-page document focuses attention on current criticism of elementary education and the demands being made on it by the public. These include pressures that reading be taught in the kindergarten; that foreign languages be introduced in the early elementary grades; that homework loads be heavier and tougher; that pupils failing to meet rigid achievement tests be flunked and required to repeat the entire grade.

No skill in education is more fundamental than reading, the Educational Policies Commission admitted. At the same time, the EPC said, research findings show that only some children gain from an early start; others should not begin reading instruction in kindergarten. "It is a matter of serving pupils on an individual basis."

The EPC takes note of demands to start the teaching of foreign languages at an earlier age. There is some justification for this, it says, because foreign languages have considerable potential for shaping attitudes toward other peoples and for arousing interest in the cultures and languages around the world.

However, the Commission adds, skill in the English language is more important for American pupils than skill in a foreign language. Then, too, mathematics, the social studies, and science are areas of prime importance in the elementary school. In view of these points, the EPC insists that a foreign-language program is not justified in the elementary school if it encroaches on pupil progress in the areas of the school's basic responsibilities.

Turning its attention to homework, the Commission says that homework, as distinct from extracurricular activities, becomes most valuable when adapted to each child. It warns that some pupils do not live in a real "home." For them, little good can come from assignments which cannot be satisfactorily completed without a home library, seclusion, time for uninterrupted study, or parent interest. "A mere increase in work assignments will not necessarily produce an increase in learning."

To promote or to fail is a question that disturbs both teachers and the public. There are rare cases when it is desirable for a pupil to repeat a year, but these children tend to accept the inferior role in which they are cast, then shape their attitudes accordingly, the EPC says. The solution to the problem is one of grouping children so as to offer the best possible learning situation for each child and to progress continuously rather than by inflexible annual promotion.

Concludes the EPC: "Many issues will persist and new issues will arise. One element, however, is common to all issues in elementary education. This is the central role of the teacher . . . There is no substitute for a person of high integrity, who is sensitive to children and professionally trained . . ."

Money to Colleges.—First it was a trickle. Then it grew to a freshet. Now it's a stream.

Such were the stages of the flow of federal funds into the nation's colleges and universities.

What this stream is doing to the quality and structure of America's system of higher education has concerned many a thoughtful educator and federal official. At last, a study called "The Survey of Federal Programs in Higher Education" will soon provide some answers.

The U. S. Office of Education estimates that from $1.5 to $2 billion Treasury dollars pour into colleges and universities each year. A half-dozen different graduate fellowships are in operation, each administered by a different federal agency. Five federal agencies conduct major research programs, using university facilities. Loans to students, grants for college housing and for teacher training are among other enterprises bringing millions of federal dollars into the stream of higher education.

The trouble is that the federal money stems unevenly from a multitude of federal agencies and pours unevenly into the institutions of higher learning. Research in science gets a larger share of the dollar than that in the humanities. Federally financed institutes train only teachers in science, math, and foreign languages; no funds are available for teachers in the social sciences.

Federal dollars frequently lure an institution into a research activity it is really not equipped to carry out. On the other hand, because some federal agencies like to deal with large, well established institutions, there is danger that the smaller campus will be ignored even though it is equipped to carry on a federally financed project.

"The Survey of Federal Programs in Higher Education" is designed to examine these and other impacts of the federal dollar on the American campus. It is directed by J. Kenneth Little, a former Deputy U. S. Commissioner of Education, now on leave from the University of Wisconsin.

"The facts from this survey should help educators and the government make sound decisions regarding the future course of higher education," says Homer D. Babbidge, Jr., of the U. S. Office of Education.

Potpourri.—As the 1960-1961 school year began in earnest, officials in Washington took note of these facts, trends, and issues:

Enrolments Up—An estimated 48,650,000 students, from kindergarten through college, are in school this fall, according to an estimate by the U. S. Commissioner of Education. This is an increase of nearly 2 million over 1959-1960 for the 50 states and the District of Columbia. It reflects the rising birth rate since the beginning of World War II.

Teachers Vote—Teachers are much more active in exercising their right of franchise than are average American citizens. That's the finding of the NEA Research Division, based on a large sampling of teachers. When asked if they had voted in the most recent election, 86 percent said they had; 6.4 percent failed to register, though eligible; and 3.5 percent failed to go to the polls. The highest percentage of citizens of voting age going to the polls in a national election since World War II was in 1952, when 63 percent voted for President and 59 percent voted for a candidate for the U. S. House of Representatives. In other years, voting participation was much lower.

For November 1960, the NEA estimates that there will be 1.5 million public-school instructional personnel. If 86 percent were to vote, about 1.3 million teachers would influence the outcome.

Children Help a Farm Problem—Children who drink milk in school drink more milk at home. A survey by the U. S. Department of Agriculture shows that children in schools participating in the school milk program consume 7 percent more milk at home than children in other schools. •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Louisville, Ky.: **Samuel V. Noe,** formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded the late **Omer Carmichael.**

Asheville, N. C.: **Woodrow P. Griffin** has been named successor to **E. C. Funderburk,** now superintendent of New Hanover County Schools, Wilmington, N. C.

Norfolk, Va.: **Edwin L. Lamberth,** formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded **John J. Brewbaker,** retired.

Waterbury, Conn.: **John G. Gilmartin** has retired.

Greenville, Miss.: **R. J. Koonce** retired in August after 40 years in education.

Jersey City, N. J.: **James E. Reynolds** has retired.

Watertown, N. Y.: **Harold T. Wiley,** formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded **Harry D. Case,** retired.

Union City, N. J.: **William G. Fiedler,** formerly assistant superintendent, is now superintendent.

San Mateo, Calif.; **Norman R. Naegle,** formerly deputy elementary superintendent, has succeeded **Walter A. Jack,** resigned.

Aberdeen, Idaho: **George E. Powell,** formerly of Dietrich, Ida., has succeeded **R. A. Weston,** retired.

East Orange, N. J.: **Henry E. Kentopp** has retired.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Suffolk University, Boston, Mass.: **Dennis C. Haley,** formerly superintendent at Boston, Mass., is now president.

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.: **Henry H. Hill** has announced his retirement in August 1961.

Cameron State Agricultural College, Lawton, Okla.: **Richard Burch,** formerly superintendent at Clinton, Okla., is the new president.

College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.: **Davis Y. Paschall,** formerly Virginia state superintendent of public instruction, is now president.

University of Detroit, Mich.: **The Rev. Laurence V. Britt,** formerly dean of the college of arts and sciences, has been named successor to **The Very Rev. Celestin J. Steiner,** who has been appointed chancellor.

University of Chicago, Ill.: **R. Wendell Harrison,** vice-president and dean of faculties, has been named acting chancellor, succeeding **Lawrence A. Kimpton,** chancellor since 1951.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

Yeshiva University, New York: **Joshua A. Fishman,** formerly of the University of Pennsylvania, has been named dean of the graduate school of education, succeeding **Benjamin Fine,** resigned.

Northern Michigan College, Marquette: **Allen R. Schwarz,** formerly chairman of the department of education, North Central College, Naperville, Ill., has been appointed director of student teaching, succeeding **Ed Pfau,** now dean of education.

Westminister College, New Wilmington, Pa.; **Clara E. Cockerille,** formerly assistant superintendent, Kittanning, Pa., is now professor of education, graduate program of school administration.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

James R. Squire, assistant professor of English at the University of Illinois, has been named executive secretary, National Council of Teachers of English, succeeding **J. N. Hook,** also of the University of Illinois.

James W. Reynolds, University of Texas, Austin, has been appointed to the Educational Policies Commission, NEA.

RECENT DEATHS:

Hollis A. Moore, who resigned as superintendent, Tyler, Tex., last spring to become regional representative for the U. S. Office of Education, died in August.

Percival M. Symonds, professor emeritus of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, at the age of 67.

Arthur Cutts Willard, president emeritus of the University of Illinois, Urbana, at the age of 82.

Willis A. Sutton, superintendent emeritus at Atlanta, Ga., and a former president of the National Education Association, at the age of 81.

New Criterions

A REVISION of the policies and criterions used by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as the basis for accrediting schools has recently been announced.

Some of the major changes:

Teaching loads.—The ratio of pupils to teachers and other professional staff members of the high school shall not exceed 27 to 1. The total pupil load for a teacher shall not exceed 170 pupils per day, except in certain activity-type classes such as typewriting, physical education, and music.

Preparation in teaching fields.—Teachers shall be assigned only to those subjects in which they have at least 18 semester hours of preparation.

Adequacy of library collections.—A minimum collection of 1,200 books, exclusive of high-school textbooks, or at least seven books per pupil enrolled, whichever is larger, shall be provided in the library until a school's enrolment reaches 500. For each pupil from 500 to 2,000 enrolled, at least four additional books shall be provided. And at least three additional books per pupil shall be provided for each pupil above 2,000.

Library expenditures.—After the library is provided with a minimum collection, the annual expenditures for books and magazines exclusive of textbooks and audio-visual materials shall be $2.50 per pupil for the first 200 pupils, but not less than $400; $1.50 per pupil for the next 300 pupils; and $.75 per pupil for each pupil above 500 enrolled.

Length of school year.—The length of the school year shall be at least 180 days, with classes actually in session 175 days.

Graduation requirements.—Four-year senior-high schools shall require a minimum of 16 units, or 160 semester hours, for graduation.

Pupil load.—The number of courses and activities which the pupil carries each year should be determined on the basis of his needs and capacity. In some cases, pupils may be allowed to graduate in less than the time recommended (four years), provided that sound guidance procedures have been followed.

Desegregation Picture

DESEGREGATION of 14 more school districts in September brought to 765 the total number of districts in the south having biracial schools to some degree, according to *Southern School News.*

Two cities, New Orleans and Houston, were under court orders to desegregate for the first time with the opening of the new session, but their status remained doubtful. Officials in each case continued legal efforts to block federal orders calling for some degree of integration.

If New Orleans does not desegregate its schools this session, the South again will have five states this year with complete segregation in elementary and high schools: Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina.

The *Southern School News* reports that one new district desegregated this year in Arkansas, two in Delaware, one in North Carolina, two in Oklahoma, two in Tennessee, one in Texas, and five in Virginia. It points out, however, that the number of Negroes attending classes with whites was expected to remain at 6 percent of the total Negroes enrolled in the public schools of the South.

Only 2,838 school districts are biracial out of the total 6,676 districts in the 17 southern and border states, plus the District of Columbia. Consolidations in several states have reduced the total number of districts from 7,016 to 6,676.

Reed Sarratt, a Winston-Salem, N. C., newspaper executive, became executive director on Sept. 1 of Southern Education Reporting Service (SERS), succeeding Edward Ball. The SERS, which operates under a Ford Foundation grant, publishes *Southern School News.*

New Colleges in Florida

SIX new colleges were opened in Florida with the start of the fall session this year. This number included one four-year university, one four-year college, and four two-year junior colleges.

The new state university is the University of South Florida at Tampa, which greeted a freshmen class of 1,800 on Sept. 26. The school will add a sophomore class in 1961 and will achieve full four-year university status in 1964.

Florida Presbyterian College, St. Petersburg, which opened this year, also will add a class a year until 1964. It is now constituted as a liberal-arts college.

The new junior colleges are located in the Miami, Fort Lauderdale, Fort Pierce, and Cocoa areas. They bring the total number of junior colleges in the state to 24. Nineteen have been added since 1957 when the state legislature authorized expansion of the junior-college program, as well as the start on the University of South Florida.

In 1959 the legislature approved plans for another university at Boca Raton to be opened in 1964 and one at Pensacola to open in 1968. It is estimated that a total of 170,000 students will be seeking admission to state-supported colleges and universities within the next 10 years.

Photography Payola

THE Professional Photographers of America, Inc., at its recent convention in Chicago, censured the practice of school officials and photographers who make under-the-table deals to obtain school photographic contracts.

The resolution declared that the photographers "condemn the giving of monies or other things of value for personal enrichment to individuals for the purpose of securing contracts, or for special treatment in connection with such operation. We consider such conduct unbecoming to a professional photographer and a violation of our Code of Ethics."

The resolution also asked school officials to take necessary action against members of their staffs who invite, encourage, or accept things of value for "having used their good offices to secure contracts for school photography."

New Los Angeles Program

A SPECIALIST-TEACHER Program, probably the first in American educational history where a public-school system has assumed a share of the responsibility of training its own teachers, started this fall in Los Angeles, Calif.

Called one of the nation's most significant steps in teacher-training, the program got under way in September when 51 embryo Specialist Teachers went to work as paid teacher-assistants in 10 Los Angeles public high schools, at the same time being graduate students on their way to masters' degrees at the University of Southern California.

Both the Los Angeles school system and the University of Southern California are partners in the program. The program also has received $660,000 support from the Ford Foundation.

The program not only is designed to train teachers as they work at teaching, it will assure them of full-time teaching positions in the city school system. It is expected that in the next five years the Specialist Teacher Program will train and see assimilated into the Los Angeles system approximately 250 of these special teachers.

"The program portends a new relationship between public-school systems and colleges and universities," states Irving R. Melbo, dean of the USC school of education. "At the same time, the program will advance teacher-preparatory standards by a full year."

Requirement Laxity

THE standards of individual cities in regard to requirements for language teachers in elementary schools seem to be more realistic than those set by their states. These are the preliminary findings of the Modern Language Association, which has been surveying the field for the U. S. Office of Education.

Eleven states, it reports, have no special requirement for language teachers in elementary schools. Some states require less than 12 hours of college foreign-language study for certification. No state requires the teacher to be able to speak the language being taught.

The full report of the study is expected to be made next June.

TV Special on Education

EDUCATIONAL experiments in America will be the theme of a TV special to be shown on the CBS television network Nov. 13. The education special will deal with team teaching in Lexington, Mass., the teacher-training program at Harvard summer school, and the airborne TV experiment being conducted at Purdue University. Arthur D. Morse is the writer and producer for the program.

Language Center Inventory

A SEVEN-MEMBER committee on languages and area centers has been formed by the American Council on Education to make an inventory of the centers for the study of rare languages which have been established under Title VI of the National Defense Education Act.

Members of the new committee are: E. Wilson Lyon, Pomona College, chairman; Y. R. Chao, University of California, Berkeley; Peter Elder, Harvard University; Gerard J. Mangone, Syracuse University; Ruth Mulhauser, Western Reserve University; Charles E. Odegaard, University of Washington; and the Rev. Walter J. Ong, St. Louis University.

The inventory is expected to be completed by June 1961.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Oct. 7-12, Department of Rural Education, NEA, and County and Rural Area Superintendents, Louisville, Ky.

Oct. 9-13, Association of School Business Officials, St. Louis, Mo.

Oct. 13-17, Public School Adult Educators, Denver, Colo.

Oct. 17-21, National Safety Council, Chicago, Ill.

Oct. 20-22, Youth Conference on the Atom, Chicago, Ill.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Nov. 6-12, American Education Week.

Nov. 7-10, National Institutional Teacher Placement Association, St. Louis, Mo.

Nov. 15-19, Council of Chief State School Officers, Sante Fe, N. M.

Nov. 23-26, National Council for the Social Studies, Boston, Mass.

Dec. 5-9, American Vocational Association, Los Angeles, Calif.

Jan. 9-12, White House Conference on Aging, Washington, D. C.

Feb. 11-15, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Detroit, Mich.

Feb. 22-25, American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 25-28, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, San Francisco, Calif.

Mar. 5-8, Association for Higher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 11-14, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, St. Louis, Mo.

Mar. 12-16, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 18-22, Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, Atlantic City, N. J.

Mar. 25-28, American Association of School Administrators, regional convention, Philadelphia, Pa.

New Educational Materials

Education of the Gifted. Merle R. Sumption and Evelyn M. Luecking. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1960. Pp. vii + 499. $6.50.

Every teacher is a teacher of gifted children whether he wills it or not; gifted children may appear in any classroom at any time, say the authors.

This book is a presentation of research and theory, of organization and procedure, and of practice and personnel, which deals with instruction of the gifted from infancy through the college years.

The book presents formal and informal methods in identifying giftedness. It discusses the advantages and disadvantages of special school programs, including curriculum enrichment, homogeneous grouping, and acceleration. It also tells how present and future special programs can be implemented at all levels. A detailed analysis of the personal and professional qualifications deemed desirable for the teachers of the gifted is included.

Professional Administrators for America's Schools. Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1960. Pp. x + 310. $5.00.

This, the 1960 Yearbook of the AASA, reviews the present status of the American public-school superintendency, including preparation, selection, education, and the changing nature of school administration. It then goes on to make proposals for "making school administration the profession its leaders covet and often claim."

Included in the book is a nationwide survey of the career patterns of school superintendents, an analysis of present-day academic and professional preparation of superintendents, and a study of in-service growth. The final chapters look at the problems involved in implementing the proposals made for improvement.

This is the last yearbook of the AASA, a series which started in 1923.

Business Management of Local School Systems. Stephen J. Knezevich and John Guy Fowlkes. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. vii + 328. $9.00.

This book, concerned solely with school business management, incorporates the results of research and publications of the U.S. Office of Education as well as illustrations from actual school conditions and the writings of practicing school officials.

Among the topics covered are: accounting for receipts and expenditures, auditing, cost analysis, insurance, property management, management of indebtedness, purchasing, financial reporting, salary scheduling and payroll administration, accounting for student-body activities, and managing school transportation and food services.

Special helps are included in the book for those who have little knowledge of business terminology.

Administrative Relationships: A Casebook. Jack A. Culburtson, Paul B. Jacobson, and Theodore L. Reller. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiv + 517. $6.75.

This book contains 17 engrossing case studies on school administration. The case histories, selected on the basis of interest, variety, and potential for developing an understanding about administration, include data pertinent to such disciplines as psychology, political science, and economics, as well as educational administration.

In addition to the case studies, the book discusses the method of case analysis, preparation of cases, and case-method teaching, and includes a section on administrative concepts, including communication, building morale, administering change, and decision making.

How Adults Learn. J. R. Kidd. New York: Association Press, 1960. Pp. 324. $4.75.

This book is intended as a guidebook, not a textbook. It is meant as an aid in an inquiry into what is known, what has been said, and what is being found out about adult learning.

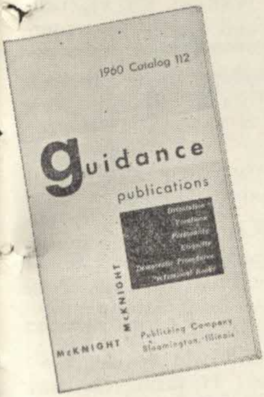
Dealing first with the concept of learning through life, Dr. Kidd refutes many myths and half-truths which aborted past efforts to unleash the potential of the adult mind. He uses concrete teacher-learner techniques to emphasize a variety of ways to apply his ideas on adult learning. He shows the specific role and task of the teacher in the adult-learning process.

The author believes that the main goal of adult learning is to develop men and women who are, at the same time, compassionately sensitive as well as tough-minded.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

How and Why Wonder Book of Electricity. Jerome J. Notkin and Disney Gulkin. **How and Why Wonder Book of Rockets and Missiles.** Clayton Knight. **How and Why**



JUST OFF THE PRESS — SEND FOR THE NEW

Free McKnight's Catalog

TYPICAL GUIDANCE BOOKS

- Good Manners: The Magic Key
- As Others Like You And Tests On Social Usage
- College Know-How
- Guidance In Elementary Schools
- Selecting An Occupation
- Understanding Ourselves
- Growing Up
- Exploring Occupations
- Success In The World Of Work
- The Bobby G
- You And Your Future
- You And Your Work Ways

FILL IN COUPON TO RECEIVE CATALOG. DESCRIBES OVER 23 NTERESTING, PRACTICAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE BOOKS.

McKnight & McKnight Publishing Co.
Dept. 825, Bloomington, Illinois

Name ....

Address ....

City ....State ....

Wonder Book of Dinosaurs. Darlene Geis. **How and Why Wonder Book of Rocks and Minerals.** Nelson W. Hyler. New York: Wonder Books, 1960. Pp. 48 each. $.50 each. New titles in this series of books.

A Journey through Many Lands. Revised by Harold D. Drummond. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. 192. $4.12.

Elementary French. Joy Humes. Childrens Press, Inc., 1960. Pp. 64. $1.00, paperbound; $1.88, cloth. Designed for grades 5 and up.

Matter, Energy, and Change. Washington, D.C.: Manufacturing Chemists' Association, Inc., 1960. Pp. 50. $.50. Discounts in quantity. Explorations in chemistry for elementary-school children.

Learning about Role-Playing for Children and Teachers. Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1960. Pp. 40. $.75.

Bonjour, Venez Voir, Je Sais Lire, and **Je Lis Avec Joie.** M. Raymond and Claude L. Bourcier. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. 96 each. $.88, $.96, and $1.00, respectively. Books 1-4 in the new elementary French series.

From Rocks to Rockets. Solveig P. Russell. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1960. Pp. 62. $2.75. Tells the story of the development of simple tools and simple concepts of physics.

From the Cave to the City and **Man Makes His World.** Patrick Lynch. New York: St. Martin's Press, Inc., 1960. Pp. 62 each. $2.95 each. Two new books in the Science for Young Readers series.

SECONDARY

Personal Adjustment, Marriage, and Family Living. (Third Edition.) Judson T. Landis. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. 384. $4.16.

Avery's Solid Geometry. Revised by William C. Stone. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. viii + 245. $3.56.

The General Education Class in the Secondary School. Louise E. Hock and Thomas J. Hill. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960. Pp. xvi + 232. $4.00.

Refresher Speller. Tobias O. Chew. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. viii + 127. $1.92.

Standards for School Library Programs. Chicago: American Library Association, 1960. Pp. xvii + 132. $2.50, paperbound. With Discussion Guide, $3.00.

Modern High School Chemistry. Edward F. Pierce. **Modern High School Biology.** Dorothy F. Stone. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960. Pp. xii + 109 and viii + 96. $1.50 each. Two Science Manpower Project monographs on recommended courses of study.

West's Story of Our Country. Revised by William E. Gardner. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiii + 658. $5.20.

Student Teaching in a Secondary School. Thomas J. Brown. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. viii + 223. $3.75, paperbound. Includes a 72-page detachable manual **Guiding a Student Teacher.**

COLLEGE

Students' Guide to Efficient Study. (Fourth Edition.) Luella Cole. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. viii + 67. $1.00.

Music Education in Action; Basic Principles and Practical Methods. Archie N. Jones. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. xx + 523. $7.25.

Basic Philosophies of Education. Christian O. Weber. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 333. $4.50.

American Education; An Introduction. (Revised Edition.) Emma Reinhardt. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. xiii + 458. $5.00.

ASIC PHILOSOPHIES OF EDUCATION

hristian O. Weber, Wells College

This is an excellent and very useful text. Not only could this book be used as a asic text for a philosophy of education course, but it could also be used in general hilosophy courses as outside reading." George G. Dawson, New York University.

960, 345 pages, $4.50

SYCHOLOGY FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING

eorge J. Mouly, University of Miami

Excellent combination of research with classroom implications—logical development a readable text." Lyle O. Estenson, Carleton College.

960, 568 pages, $5.50

INEHART EDUCATION PAMPHLETS

Handbook for the New Teacher; Are You A GOOD Teacher? Homework: A Guide or Secondary School Teachers; The Unified Curriculum: A Case Study, Grades 7-8; ase Studies in School Supervision; Using Committees in the Classroom; Teaching eginners to Read; Teaching Study Habits and Skills; How to Evaluate Teachers and eaching. $1.00 each.

Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

383 Madison Ave., N. Y. 17

College Entrance Examinations. Louis K. Wechsler, Martin Blum, and Sidney Friedman. New York: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 1960. Pp. xi +305. $1.95.

A History of Western Civilization; Vol. 2: From 1600 to the Present. Thomas P. Neill, Daniel D. McGarry, and Clarence L. Hohl. Milwaukee, Wis.: Bruce Publishing Company, 1960. Pp. xii + 1274. $6.95.

GUIDANCE

Careers in Education. Richard Wynn. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960. Pp. xii + 307.

What Could I Be? Walter M. Lifton. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1960. Pp. 33. $.54. Teacher's Manual: **Introducing the World of Work to Children.** Pp. 23. $.50.

Standardized Tests for Use in Connection with the National Defense Education Act of 1958. New York: The American Textbook Publishers Institute, 1960. Pp. 8. Free.

GENERAL

Helping Your Gifted Child. Ruth Strang. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. xi + 270. $4.50.

Intramural Sports. (Third Edition.) Pat Mueller and Elmer D. Mitchell. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1960. Pp. vii + 443. $6.00.

Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials. (Tenth Edition.) Published by Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville 5, Tenn., 1960. Pp. 252. $1.50.

Education in a Free Society, Vol. II. Henry Steele Commager, Robert McEwen, and Brand Blanshard. Pittsburgh Press, 1960. Pp. 62. $3.00. One of the Pitcairn-Crabbe Foundation Lecture Series.

Philosophy in the Mass Age. George P. Grant. New York: Hill and Wang, Inc., 1960. Pp. 128. $3.00. An essay on the fabric of Western culture and the need for a new moral philosophy.

Cassell's New Latin Dictionary. (Revised Edition.) D. P. Simpson. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company, 1960. Pp. xviii + 883. $7.00, plain; $7.75, thumb-indexed.

Philosophy for American Education. Kenneth H. Hanson. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 310. $5.50.

The Handbook of Private Schools. (41st Edition.) Boston: Porter Sargent, 1960. Pp. 1287. $10.00.

A Firsthand Report on Soviet Schools. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1960. Pp. 63. $1.00. Discounts in quantity.

The Cost of a Schoolhouse. New York: Educational Facilities Laboratory, 1960. Pp. 144. Free.

Public School Finance Programs of the United States, 1957-58. Albert R. Munse and Eugene P. McLoone. U.S. Office of Education Booklet Misc. No. 33. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. $2.00.

The Literature of Liberal Adult Education, 1945-57. J. D. Mezirow and Dorothea Berry. New York: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1960. Pp. [illegible] + 308. $6.50.

Educating for Economic Competence. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1960. Pp. v + 78. $1.00.

Implementing Enrichment through a Curriculum Consultant. Gladys Grimjes. **Languages for the Gifted.** L. Clark Keating. Cincinnati, Ohio: National Association of Gifted Children, 1959. $.25 each.

A Handbook for the New Teacher. Willard Abraham. New York: Rinehart & Company, 1960. Pp. 60. $1.00.

READER INFORMATION SERVICE

Send in this coupon to get additional information easily and quickly from the advertisers in this issue and about the materials listed in "New Educational Materials."

- ☐ **Holt, Rinehart and Winston Books**
- ☐ **McKnight & McKnight Guidance Catalog**
- ☐ **Scott, Foresman Dictionaries**
- ☐ **Tangley Oaks Materials**

I would also like more information on the following books and other materials listed in this issue:

....

....

Name .... **Position** ....

Address O-60

Send to THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

BEGINNING DICTIONARY
Grade 4

JUNIOR DICTIONARY
Grades 5-6

ADVANCED JUNIOR DICTIONARY
Grades 7-8

HIGH SCHOOL DICTIONARY
Grades 9-12

Build the dictionary habit with dictionaries your pupils can and will use. There's a

THORNDIKE-BARNHART DICTIONARY

to give every child the language help he needs at each stage of his development from Grade 4 through high school.

SCOTT, FORESMAN
AND COMPANY

Chicago 11 Atlanta 5 Dallas 2 Palo Alto Fair Lawn, N.J.

Education... preparation for complete living

Bureau Edn'l. Research
Listed

Here at Tangley Oaks we believe that education is more than the "acquisition and impartation of knowledge, skills and discipline of character"—it is preparation for living—COMPLETE LIVING.

TANGLEY OAKS publishes a variety of learning tools for use in the home, school, and library. These include reference works, children's literature, history, creative activities, and parent guides.

As a means of "preparation for complete living", these materials are the end result of laboratory testing in our own and co-operating school systems... of participation in educational workshops and clinics... of skillful editorial direction of a worldwide staff of scholars and specialists.

Back Row, Left to Right: WILLIAM VAN TIL, Ph.D., *Chairman, Dept. o Secondary Education, New York University* • Chairman, CAREY CRONEIS, D.Sc., Ph.D., D.Eng., *Provost of Rice Institute* • E. T. McSWAIN, Ed.D., *Dean, School of Education, Northwestern University* • FRANCIS KEPPEL, B.A., *Dean, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University*.

Front Row, Left to Right: KARL S. BERNHARDT, Ph.D., *Professor of Psychology and Assistant Director, Institute of Child Study, The Laboratory School, University of Toronto* • SELMER H. BERG, M.A., *Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, California* • A. J. BRUMBAUGH, Ph.D., LL.D., L.H.D., *Consultant, U. S. Office of Education; Consultant, Southern Regional Education Board.*

This distinguished advisory board is a source o knowledge and guidance for our editorial staff.

Our TANGLEY OAKS Laboratory Schools show us what the children want. *Our Board of Educators makes certain the material is educationally sound.*

Result: fine *books which children love to* use . . . and *will* read.

TANGLEY OAKS
EDUCATIONAL CENTER

•

PUBLISHERS HOUSE
LAKE BLUFF, ILLINOIS

"Dedicated to the creation of better books"

Publishers of—

AMERICAN EDUCATOR Encyclopedia
Concise-Nontechnical—Authentic—Up-to-Date

WONDERLAND OF KNOWLEDGE
A Colorfully Written, Pictorial Encyclopedia

MY BOOK HOUSE **BOOK TRAILS**
Selected and Graded Literature for Children

A Picturesque Tale of Progress
Historical Pageant of Mankind

WORLD TOPICS YEAR BOOK
An Annual Supplement

JUNIOR INSTRUCTOR
Facts and Fun for Primary Grades

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

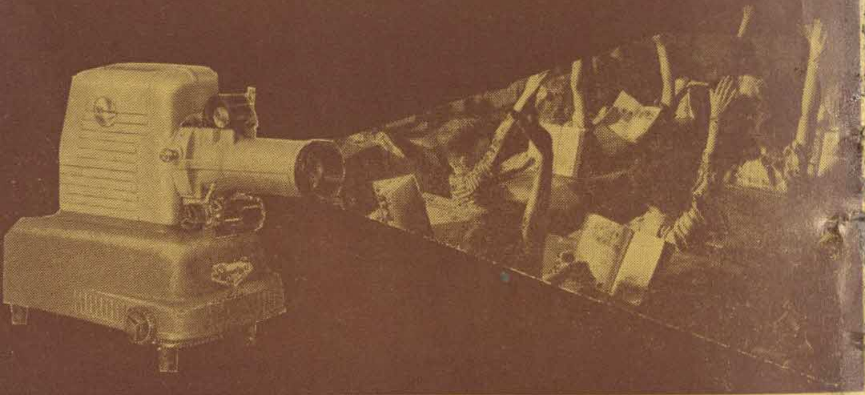
Libry
x.P.e
6/1

CONTENTS

New Strategy for America's Schools
Saturday Review 1
Are We Squeezing Out Adolescence?
National Parent-Teacher 5
Mental Health and Illness . . . NEA Journal 9
Program of the High School We Need
The High School We Need 12
nsiderations for National Certification
The Journal of Teacher Education 16
The Junior-College Role . College and University 20
Language by Electronics . . . . High Points 23
Tax-Favored Annuities . School Business Affairs 26
Do Colleges Determine What High Schools Teach?
The Clearing House 28
Marriage and High-School Students
The Nation's Schools 32
Role Functions of the Teacher
The Dynamics of Instructional Groups 34
Higher Education Is a Public Obligation
School and Society 38
Implications of Permissiveness
Educational Theory 41
Using Units of Work in Mathematics
Indiana U. School of Education Bulletin 44
Reader Aides for English Teachers . . Overview 46
Diagnosis of Reading Problems . Reading Teacher 47
International Education and Teacher Training
U. of Mich. School of Education Bulletin 50
With Education in Washington 53
Educational News 57
New Educational Materials 60

XXVI November 1960 Number 3

NEW "EASIER-TO-LEARN WITH" VIEWLEX V-25-P DOUBLES EFFECTIVE LIGHT POWER AT NO EXTRA COST!



Viewlex V-25-P 500 WATT COMBINATION FILMSTRIP-SLIDE PROJECTOR

The progressive Viewlex V-25-P 35mm Filmstrip and 2" x 2" Slide Projector moves A. V. TEACHING POWER years ahead—in a single giant stride! The ultra-advanced new light source combined with the new optical system in the V-25-P literally makes it "Easier to Learn With" . . . provides twice the effective light power on-screen—at no extra cost!

With these exclusive new Viewlex features—

NEW—Revolutionary "Pop-up" lamp ejector makes lamp changing quick and easy.

NEW—Thermal-engineered super-cooling system that permits unlimited showing time, lengthens lamp life by combining unique Venturi-style lamp-housing with special Airjector opening built into newly designed die-cast base.

NEW—Elegant two-tone Charcoal and Dawn Grey "Wrinkle" textured finish.

PLUS—These additional features made famous by Viewlex:

- Simple 3 second, push-in filmstrip threading.
- Projects single or double frame filmstrip, vertical or horizontal, or 2" x 2" slides.
- Changes in seconds from film strips to slides.

Only $97.50

Also available—New Viewlex V-45-P for Filmstrip only. Has all other features of V-25-P.

Only $84.50

NEW MULTI-FOCAL ACCESSORY LENS produces images that fill screens of varied width at a given distance without moving projector or refocusing lens. It has an infinitely adjustable 3½" to 6" focal length all in one lens.

$49.50

Other Viewlex projectors available from $50.25 to $495.00. Ask your Viewlex Audio-Visual franchised dealer for a demonstration, or write for catalog.

All Viewlex Projectors are GUARANTEED FOR A LIFETIME

Viewlex Inc.
35-09 Queens Boulevard
Long Island City 1, N. Y.

World's Largest Exclusive Manufacturer of Slide & Filmstrip Projecto

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1960 by Lawrence W. Prakken

Volume XXVI NOVEMBER 1960 Number 3

A Commission to Reappraise Shibboleths

New Strategy for American Schools

ALVIN C. EURICH

In Saturday Review

Alvin C. Eurich is Vice-President and Director of the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Reported from Saturday Review, *XLIII (September 3, 1960), 13–15, 35–36.*

If education is the "life-giving principle of national power," as Walter Lippman has said, it becomes necessary to ask: Who is planning for the future of education? The answer is: nobody. The improvement of education in the United States is nobody's special business.

The need for constructive changes in education must be set through some instrument of state government that has as its sole mission the *improvement* of the educational system at all levels.

In other areas of our society we have seen an emphasis on development yield high returns. In agriculture, for example, state experimental stations were attached to land-grant colleges in 1888. At that time almost half of our gainfully employed were engaged in raising food for the nation. Today it takes only about 8 percent to produce an enormous surplus. Where would we be today in agriculture without the experimental stations and the extension services that carry the results of investigations to our farmers? Similarly in industry and in medicine and health, development programs staffed by a large corps of investigators devote all their time to planning for the future. But nobody is doing anything like this in education.

I suggest, therefore, that each state set up a Commission on Educational Development. It would be the task of this commission to look to the future constantly and to devote its entire attention to the improvement of education in the state. Obviously, such commissions could not follow a uniform pattern; their organization would vary from state to state. But in every case these

Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich. Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Mich., and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Ind. Subscription, $5.00 a year.

commissions should create an atmosphere in education which is comparable to that in agriculture, industry, or medicine and should make it clear that each year we can and will do the job better.

The membership of such a commission should be of the highest caliber, comparable to that of the board of regents or trustees of the state university, and it should work with a highly qualified staff. The commission would have no administrative responsibilities. It would serve primarily three functions:

1. It would sponsor new experiments designed to provide higher-quality education with due regard for efficiency and economy.

2. It would disseminate information about new developments not only within the state but throughout the country.

3. It would promote the adoption of such new developments as have been tried and found successful; it would also issue an annual report and recommend necessary legislation.

The Commission on Educational Development should be financed on the basis of a fixed percentage of the state's budget for education—at something of the magnitude of one-half of 1 percent to start with. I am confident the return on such an investment would be rewarding beyond our wildest expectations.

At the outset the commission would re-examine the so-called unalterable truths—the generally accepted premises—on which we are now operating our educational system. While considering the set formulas, the commission might as well assess the results of promising experiments throughout the country. Such reconnaissance would prevent duplication of effort and enable the commission to find programs for adoption within its own state. A few examples of the "unalterable truths" which the commission should re-appraise are worth mentioning.

STUDENT-TEACHER RATIO

Because so much in education depends on it, the first shibboleth that requires critical examination is the fixed teacher-student ratio. Our state budgets for education are usually based on the number of students, and this, in turn, automatically fixes the number of teachers needed. This teacher-student ratio also determines the number of classrooms required and forms the basis for our school construction. It is usually assumed that the all-important ratio must be maintained at any cost: 1 to 30 at the elementary level, 1 to 25 for high schools, and 1 to 13 for colleges. Yet a half century of experimental work does not support this fixation. In fact, research places the burden of proof on the proponents of small classes. Students do as well on examinations, and in many cases better, if taught in larger classes by *superior teachers*.

It should be selfevident, therefore, that the quality of the teacher is the paramount consideration. But in our preoccupation with numbers we have failed to notice the obvious.

For many years I wondered where the fixed student-teacher ratio came from. Finally, with the aid of a Talmudic scholar, I learned that in Babylonian Talmud, the rule was established by Rabbi Raba, an authoritative sage of the third century A.D. The rule undoubtedly reflected even earlier practices and was established long before the days of printed books.

It has been repeatedly demonstrated that better instruction results when the teacher is given an opportunity to use his special talents more widely than he can in the conventional classroom of stipulated size. Efforts to utilize teachers more effectively have led to greater flexibility in class size, to the use of teacher assistants, to team teaching, to the use of television, motion pictures, and even teaching machines. I want it clearly understood that I am not advocating that television, or any other gadget or device, replace the teacher. Nothing can be further from my intention. But it would be the function of the proposed state commissions to look into and evaluate all such educational explorations.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

A second "unalterable truth" of education is that the number of years in school determines the student's educational attainment. This "truth" has been repeatedly disproven. Tests have shown over and over that age and years spent in school are no measure of academic attainment. In fact, high-school seniors in some secondary schools are better educated than some of our college graduates.

In like fashion, we cling to the assumption that a number of years spent in school, plus a few professional courses, are all that is required to prepare a teacher for the public schools. Such a record may satisfy a state's certification standards, but it is ridiculous to assume that it in any way guarantees high-quality teaching. Teaching is unlike any other profession in that anyone who enters has already spent approximately 17 years in close contact with the profession. Would it not be less wasteful of human energy to determine first what it is that a teacher has to know and then find out whether he already knows it, before insisting he study it again?

The whole educational process would become more meaningful if each state would establish a system of comprehensive examinations to determine the actual achievement of students. On several occasions in the past, when confronted with a critical situation, we have resorted to the wholesale use of examinations to determine the most effective use of our human resources. Furthermore, we are not reluctant to give comprehensive examinations for admission to college. If examinations are important and worthwhile as a basis for admission, could they not also be effective for college graduation and at other points in the school system?

Similarly, our present method of certifying teachers by depending on accumulated course credits could be replaced by a system of examinations. In this way it would perhaps be possible for a truly educated person to become a teacher even though his academic credits did not balance with an arbitrarily fixed requirement. This is certainly a matter for reappraisal.

Moreover, the increased use of achievement and placement tests makes it essential to sharpen our concept of what an education should add up to. And this brings us to a third important area of reappraisal: the total curriculum.

THE TOTAL CURRICULUM

In attempting to adapt the curriculum to everybody, we have fabricated a mosaic without pattern, a program that is indefinable. The curriculum needs to be studied to reduce the alarming scattering of courses. It is no longer necessary for every school to try to offer everything. Instead, the very best can be given to a far greater number of students than ever before. For example, think of the opportunities for learning geology, botany, and biology that our national parks offer. With television, these resources can be made available to school children throughout the country and not, as previously, only to the privileged few who can visit them. This is only one of many areas begging to be developed.

Finally, we come to the problem of the teacher and his professional life. We all know that teachers are underpaid and often overworked. Successful demonstrations of merit salary scales should lead to a reassessment of the usual system of automatic increases according to years of experience and degrees earned. In order to make the career of a teacher more interesting and profitable, the subject of his rewards—in the economic as well as professional sense—demands an urgent reappraisal.

My main concern in drawing attention to the multitude of problems is to suggest the enormous task a State Commission on Educational Development could perform, if it concerned itself with the many critical issues that presently confront the American educational system, and if it made improvement of that system its special business. Before time, attention, and money will be well spent and directed, there must be that questioning process of the unalterable truths, the shibboleths on which so much of our present system is based.

Antiquated techniques, antiquated customs and concepts have frozen and have acquired a sanctity far beyond their merit. They must be desanctified, unfrozen, reexamined, revitalized. We must encourage a creative, restless, and positive concern for improving the quality of education so that each individual can become all that he is capable of being. Only in this manner can we hope to attain that vision and that ideal on which this nation was founded. •

Are We Squeezing Out Adolescence?

Margaret Mead

In National Parent-Teacher

We complain today that our young adults are narrow, selfish, interested only in the security of their own families, without horizons and without dedication, although they are good, hard-working husbands and wives, fathers and mothers. One explanation is that we turn them into potential husbands and fathers, wives and mothers far too soon. We stunt their moral and intellectual growth as it was once stunted by the narrowness of a primitive culture or a stringent poverty. But for us there is no such excuse.

Man is born with the capacity to acquire any knowledge that his forefathers have gained. To absorb this knowledge, man needs the long learning period of childhood and youth, and this long childhood is one main reason why he has been able to advance so rapidly.

What a society does with this learning period is a decisive element in determining not only the level of its culture but its survival in a socially competitive world. How fast are its children to be made to grow up?

The more primitive the society, the shorter the learning period has been. But one of the first signs of an advancing civilization is the lengthened learning period of adolescence, which postpones adult responsibility.

In the United States today, the common man lives as kings once lived. The house of the common man has luxuries no ancient palace could afford—heating and lighting, foods from all over the world, new and wonderful materials. In this house, news of the world is brought to him, and from it messages are sent, both with astounding rapidity. Without leaving his easy chair, he has gained an extensive knowledge of what is going on in the world.

As we have produced these and other marvels of well-being for family life, we have thought also

Margaret Mead, well-known anthropologist, is Associate Curator of Ethnology at the American Museum of Natural History, New York City. Reported from National Parent-Teacher, *LV (September 1960), 4–6.*

that we were giving our children something no other children had before. We offer them, combined, the onetime advantages of the highly privileged with the new possibilities of an industrialized country. Not only do we educate the children of the rich or the future elite, but everyone. First came elementary education for all, then high-school education for all – a goal undreamed of two short centuries ago.

SOMETHING IS WRONG

But we are in serious danger of falling short of our ideal, no matter how near it may appear when we see the hordes of bright-faced youngsters pouring out of our impressively beautiful school buildings. For something is wrong. The symptoms have been enumerated often: the increase in juvenile delinquency and crime, the number of young people whom we permanently stigmatize as failures, the waste of talent, low academic standards, the high drop-out rate. These are the obvious deficits of an educational system that has become too impersonal and too standardized to take account of the individual child whose first failure, if caught in time, need not lead to retardation, truancy, and delinquency.

Just as severe a price is being paid by the children who make high grades, have an admirable record in extracurricular affairs, and have good chances at higher education. Along with their conformity to the school's demands goes conformity to another kind of demand, one begun in the junior-high school –that they be adult beyond their years.

The very phrase *age mate* becomes a kind of absurdity in junior-high school, where tiny youngsters several years away from puberty are classified with well-developed girls who look almost ready to be the mothers of another generation. Some of these youngsters have scintillating intelligence and the bodies of children. Others are still childish in mind though mature in body. Yet all are pushed into a common mold, pushed ahead to match not the highest intellectual development but the most precocious physical development.

This means that in our junior-high schools the pace is set by the girls, as it has been ever since the children entered first grade. Little girls are more docile and more verbal than boys, more anxious to please; and because these are qualities that our schools reward, the girls appear to excel the boys. If the schools would place as high a value on other qualities–originality, creativity, stubborn individuality of style, refusal merely to conform to please–the boys, recent investigations show, would come out better. Docility, verbal compliance, and the wish to please don't go very well with originality.

So, from the start, our grade schools expect girls to set standards in schoolwork, standards of orderliness, accuracy, legibility in handwriting, and proper outlining. The boys, for the most part, simply remove themselves from this world. They play games, think about cars, follow the major leagues. Meanwhile, the girls forge ahead.

IN JUNIOR-HIGH SCHOOL

Then comes junior-high school, which accentuates the differences in each sex and between the sexes because it is limited to the years of greatest disparity in growth. By this time the girls are, on the average, two years ahead of the boys in physical development. The boys, on the other hand, are not only farther behind the girls than before but incredibly diverse in size and shape, from Tom Thumbs to tall, thin creatures. Or they may be inordinately fat.

Hardly any of the boys have a sufficient internal stirring of approaching manhood to turn them spontaneously in the direction of the girls. Girls appear to them as alien creatures – too big, too demanding, too sure. Left to themselves, the boys would pull the girls' pony tails, pelt them with snowballs, or ignore them altogether. Once in a while a boy might defend a smaller girl and thus begin to think about protecting his own and other boys' sisters, a habit which has almost disappeared in the United States. But most junior-high boys would have nothing to do with girls their own age.

Neither would the more mature junior-high school girl be attracted by the reluctant, fumbling dance steps of her boy classmates. She would much prefer older boys, much older, even college "men."

REAL ADOLESCENCE DENIED

From first grade on we have trapped our boys in a female-modeled environment, in which the kind of lessons girls do well are the kind of lessons everybody does. Later we insist on keeping children of the same age together, which means that the more mature girls dominate the scene. Both boys and girls, therefore, are denied a real adolescence and forced instead into premature adult activity. Rich and privileged as no nation has ever been, do we have any reason to push our children into such premature adulthood, as if they lived in a country where the majority of the people still do not know where tomorrow's meal will come from?

This sorry situation has come on us gradually. As high schools broadened after World War I to include all sorts of children, the separation of children by age became more and more rigorous. The junior-high school seemed a good idea–a way of introducing young people by degrees to the different structure of high school. But it was invented without due regard to what we already knew about the tremendous discrepancy between boys and girls of that age. Nor have we reckoned with the ever-growing pressure toward precocity, toward becoming adult before one really becomes adolescent. Long pants, lipstick, nail polish, and dating have crept down into the grades, and social, not intellectual, preparation is emphasized in the junior-high school.

For the stimulating and exciting challenge of friendship with members of one's own sex, we have substituted "going steady." Mothers report that this makes the boy "much more serious about his work," not recognizing that such seriousness, though it leads to good grades, early career choice, and early adulthood, cuts the boy off from the searching, exploring, and experimenting that will some day result in real maturity.

The fruits of all this are bitter: lowered educational standards, a world that is much harder for boys than girls (although it is from our boys that most of our scientists and leaders will come), shortcircuited careers, low levels of aspiration, the tremendous hostility of men toward women, and the uneasy contempt of women for men.

None of this can be changed overnight. But there are things that every responsible community can do. First, it should urge a different kind of emphasis in elementary school, so that the special abilities of boys will be recognized more and their greater waywardness and variability penalized less. Second, there should be a determined effort to reduce social activities at the junior-high level, to encourage solitary pastimes, and to promote separate activities for boys and girls (all of which are discouraged today by parents and teachers alike). Third, adolescent social affairs should cut across high-school and college lines. Then maturing girls can meet older boys who are ready, physically and emotionally, for the pressures of dating. Fourth, there should be a serious exploration of the advantages of growing up slowly. The long days of adolescence will never return – those days in which both boys and girls have their last leisure to search their souls and to try, without commitment, the many possible roles they may take in the world. •

- All any grown-up expects of an adolescent is that he act like an adult and be satisfied to be treated like a child. –From *Louisiana Schools.*

- Twelve-year-olds are now taking their dates to the theater and then to a hotel for dancing. At this rate, what is left for them at 16 but a quiet game of checkers by the fireside?–*Rabbi David Polish.*

- The main business of the adolescent is, through gentle transition, to stop being one.–From *Vocational Guidance Quarterly.*

- The Good Old Days–when kids were juvenile delinquents but did not know it.–*Dan Kinney.*

Mental Health and Illness

WILLIAM W. WATTENBERG

In NEA Journal

FORTUNATELY, the majority of our children are mentally healthy. They are capable of play and laughter, respond favorably to nice weather, show pride in successful school work, and eagerly explore their surroundings.

They are relaxed. They express their emotions in a form appropriate to the situation. They tend to look at themselves realistically and to have a good estimate of their abilities. They act their age. And they recognize probable consequences of their actions. Though they may show some pathology, they will be able to keep this within safe limits.

On the other hand, emotional problems beyond the range of the normal show themselves in many ways—sometimes in unusual personality patterns, sometimes in learning difficulties, sometimes in disciplinary problems. Whether the child is disrupting the class or is quietly withdrawn, it may be necessary to persuade his parents to seek treatment for him, themselves, or both.

William W. Wattenberg is Professor of Educational Psychology at Wayne State University, Detroit, Mich. Reported from NEA Journal, *XLIX (September 1960), 17–19.*

Many disturbed children display strong anxiety. They hold tense postures, speak in quavering voices, perspire profusely, and regard adults fearfully. Some disturbed children appear "deadpan," stolid. Others get carried away by surges of hate, fear, or affection. Their emotional expression is often inappropriate.

Some emotionally sick children show withdrawal. They avoid contact with people, indulge in all-absorbing daydreams, and react strongly to intrusions on their privacy. A number of disturbed children are excessively talkative. The unbroken tide of words may be accompanied by worried looks directed at the adult.

Behavior of emotionally disturbed children may be consistently ill-suited to their sex, their age, and their surroundings. In a few cases, the chief symptom, and a very serious one, is a low energy level. The youngster tires easily for no apparent reason. In other instances, the child is impatient of frustration. He quits difficult tasks quickly and displays anger at any setback.

Emotional problems often manifest themselves as learning difficulties. The troubled child may have an emotional block to learning at the level of his ability or he may be able to learn but be unable to give back the information in speech or writing.

In helping the poor learner, we must first make sure that his intelligence and social background make it possible for him to master his school work. Then we must study the symptoms to discover his type of learning difficulty.

A common situation is where the errors are understandable in terms of the subject. For instance, the errors in division may result from faulty multiplication by eight. The solution is to give remedial instruction without considering emotional troubles unless the difficulty persists after careful reteaching.

A second possibility is that the child shows anxiety when taking an examination or speaking in class. This is a production difficulty. If the child consistently shows this pattern, there may well be an emotional cause.

A third possibility is that the pattern of errors has little logic, and there is little sense to the way the youngster knows something one day, forgets it the second, and unexpectedly recalls it the third. Such a condition bespeaks some fairly deep emotional block. If at all possible, the parents should be urged to seek psychiatric help for the child.

A fourth pattern appears in the high school. Rather suddenly, there occurs an unexpected contrast between the work the child is now doing and what he did earlier. If he has only recently become interested in the opposite sex, this can be a relatively normal thing. As soon as he is comfortably established in social activities, academic work will usually return to its old levels. If his work does not improve, however, then it is important to determine the youngster's attitude about his educational future. If the evidence points to strong parental pressure for scholastic success, then we may suspect an emotional reaction linked to parent-child conflict. Counseling on personal problems may quickly resolve the difficulty. If not, then intensive treatment could be the only solution.

DISCIPLINARY PROBLEMS

What about disciplinary problems? What signs tend to distinguish normal misbehavior from "sick" misbehavior?

Misbehavior can be psychologically normal, even though it constitutes a problem for the teacher. Fighting among boys anywhere above the third grade is normal in many neighborhoods, but the schools may have to enforce rules against it. Also, misbehavior is normal if it expresses an emotional reaction which is appropriate.

Misbehaving is normal, psychologically speaking, if it serves a clear purpose for the child. Dora, for example, has driven her young math teacher to distraction by turning in assignments based on misunderstandings of his directions. It is normal for young girls to have crushes on men teachers and seek their attention. With this problem an experienced principal can be as helpful as a psychiatrist.

Misbehavior bespeaks emotional disturbances, however, when it consistently shows the following characteristics:

1. *The behavior has a peculiar compulsive or driven quality.* The pupil in question really knows better but "cannot help himself." Something made him do it and he cannot tell you what. Such behavior calls for professional diagnosis.

2. *The behavior has a quality of soliciting punishment.* Helen, in seventh grade, consistently goes out of her way to provoke the wrath of her teachers and does not stop until the teacher swoops down on her, shouting, "You have been asking for this!" The teacher's outburst is a fairly accurate diagnosis. A conference with the parents might provide some clue as to the cause.

3. *The misbehavior is accompanied by inappropriately intense emotion.* When Carl gets into a fight, he completely loses control of himself and becomes almost murderous. Although fighting among boys is not unusual, wildly destructive rage is another matter. Carl needs professional help.

4. *The misbehavior itself is inappropriate to the age level or situation.* Jennie, although 12, has temper tantrums in which she acts like a six-year-old. Larry, although living in a rather reserved middle-class suburb, uses four-letter obscenities in class. Either form of conduct is so far out of line it indicates some serious personality disorder.

5. *There is a consistent pattern of offenses followed by intense remorse, which is quickly forgotten because there are new offenses and further remorse.* For a conscience to be able to punish after a misdeed but be incapable of giving effective advance warnings is hardly normal. Again, professional diagnosis is needed.

6. *After relatively serious events, some youngsters appear preoccupied with their parents' probable reaction.* It is quite possible that the child's conflict is motivated by hostility to a parent. Such behavior can be the result of a neurotic pattern. A child-guidance clinic might be able to help unravel the situation.

At some time or another, every adult and every child will show some irrational defense mechanisms, display some inappropriate emotions, be confused by some aspects of reality, and evidence other isolated symptoms associated with mental illness. But let us remember that most children are strong and resilient. For the rest, although teachers cannot be psychiatrists, they often can identify some probable victims and possibly forestall later, life-wrecking developments.

At the very least, having recognized that a child is emotionally weak or vulnerable, we can treat him with patience and understanding in the classrooms. For some, this will be of inestimable value. •

Program of the High School We Need

Kimball Wiles and **Franklin Patterson**

In The High School We Need

Kimball Wiles is Professor of Education at the University of Florida, Gainesville. Franklin Patterson is Professor of Civic Education, Tufts University, Medford, Mass. Reported from The High School We Need, *published by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A., Washington, D.C. (1960), Pp. 9–13, 21.*

THE secondary school must serve a dual role. It must contribute to the development of basic citizenship beliefs and skills and also promote the individual's unique abilities. Although both functions contribute ultimately to the same goal, a better society, they are not always cultivated by the same process and the school must organize its program to further both ends.

We believe the secondary school should be a comprehensive school. If a major task of the public-school system is to develop the basic values of a free society, students must have an opportunity to live and work together. If specialized high schools which divide the population along social and economic lines were substituted for comprehensive high schools, it would further the division that exists among groups and decrease the possibility of maintaining and developing the qualities that unite us as a free people. The comprehensive high school is an essential element in the development of a common viewpoint sufficiently strong to hold our nation together.

Outcomes Sought. — There are certain types of growth which must be promoted in all youths who attend the secondary school. Each youth should develop increased understanding of self and his responsibilities in society, commitment to democratic values, economic understanding of self and his responsibility to think. These are qualities that will help him to be an effective citizen. The amount of growth, however, will vary from student to student for it is not the function of the school to produce students who are exactly alike.

Variety of Offerings. — The secondary school must provide a wide range of experience through class and nonclass activities. No longer can it be assumed that all youth can benefit from the same program. If the capacities of all youth are to be developed, the offerings of the secondary school should be as comprehensive as are the educational needs of the society which supports it. Recent research has shown that each individual interprets for himself and that he learns in terms of his needs, background, and purposes. The program that will be successful in promoting growth in commitment to democratic values for one student will not necessarily be effective with other students.

Individual Programs. – The program for each youth should be planned on an individual basis. Establishing four curriculums – academic, vocational, business, and general – and asking that a student choose and follow one is not the answer. Such a plan does not provide adequately for individual differences and is not flexible enough to permit change in pupil goals and plans without drastic penalty.

If a student who matures late decides in his third year of high school that he wants to go to college, he should not be denied the opportunity or forced to take extra semesters of high-school work because of an unwise choice made at the end of the eighth grade. And all students who expect to continue their education in institutions of higher education do not need the same high-school courses. Research has repeatedly demonstrated that no particular selection of high-school courses provides the best preparation for college. If maximum learning is to be achieved, the individual's selection of courses should be made in terms of his present interests, potential career direction, and long-range aspirations.

Basic Elements. – The program for each individual must contain general education and specialized education. General education is essential to equip our youth for the responsibilities of free citizenship. Specialized education is equally essential to promote the development of individual abilities and sensibilities.

One-third to one-half of each student's program should be devoted to general education. All persons growing up in our culture need a knowledge of democratic values and skill in implementing them, an understanding of our governmental and social institutions, an insight into our economic organization, a grasp of our national and international relations, and an ability to contribute to the functioning and improvement of our human life. The required courses and activities should be those which focus directly on promoting these qualities.

Although general education is important, the secondary school must place at least equal emphasis on opportunity for individual development. One-half to two-thirds of each student's program should be used to develop his talents and to further his personal goals within the framework that the community is willing and able to support. Each community should make available a range of elective offerings. Each student, with appropriate guidance, should be free to choose for one-half or more of his program those courses which, in his opinion, will develop his potentialities.

Placement of Courses. – Any elective course should be available to any qualified student regardless of his grade level. Since students develop at different rates, to make the assumption that courses other than general education courses should be assigned to a particular grade level is to limit the extent to which the school can care for individual differences. For example, a mature ninth-grade pupil reading at the eleventh-grade or twelfth-grade level should be free to move into an elective course in literature. A student who is strong in mathematics should be free to move into geometry even though he is in the ninth grade. The basis of choice for the elective portion of the student's curriculum should be the intensity of his purpose, his potential, and his level of achievement.

Change in Program. – The individual's program should be evaluated each year and revised to provide for change in purpose and more accurate estimates of ability. Each student beginning his secondary-school program should plan his complete high-school program. The student, parents, and staff members should participate in this planning. At the end of the first semester of the ninth grade and at the end of each year of progress, the plan should be revised. Courses should be dropped and others added if goals have changed or if attained level of achievement indicates success is not probable.

Guidance. – Each student should have one staff member who is carefully selected to guide him throughout his high-school career. Scheduling should permit this staff member to get acquainted with the student and his parents and consult with them on decisions.

Guidance of high-school students cannot be performed adequately by counselors alone. With a counseling load of 200 to 300 students, the counselor is able to see the majority of students only once or twice a semester. If guidance is to function in the secondary school, the classroom teacher will provide the major portion of it. The major function of the guidance specialist will be to serve as a resource to teachers and provide help for students with serious difficulties.

A Home Base. – Each student should be a member of at least one home base group with which he has a continuing relationship. The student needs the friendship and support that continued acquaintanceship with other pupils will provide. The homeroom or one of the general education classes may well be the group in which the student has his continuing membership. A sense of continuity and identity may be lost as an individual shifts from group to group during the elective portion of his program. The home base group should be the unit for organizing intramural activities and student government.

Grouping. – Students should be grouped in various ways in different phases of their high-school experience. The controversy in regard to grouping is meaningless if proponents see only two choices – heterogeneous or homogeneous.

Grouping within a high-school program should be done to provide the best environment for the kind of growth the school seeks to promote. In general education, the most important purpose is to develop qualities that will produce a good citizen. This phase of the program, therefore, should be in classes that are heterogeneously grouped. This process permits a student to know what the various segments of the population are like, and develop skill in working with people different from himself.

In the elective portion of a student's program, the grouping should be homogeneous in terms of two factors: the pupil's intensity of purpose and his level of achievement. Most people are familiar with grouping based on levels of achievement as in varsity athletics, music groups, and advanced typing. Not as much use is made of the intensity of purpose factor in grouping. Yet intensity of purpose determines the amount of effort that an individual will exert—it may be fully as important as the student's level of achievement.

Materials of Instruction. — The high school should utilize the new resources for instruction that derive from our culture's rapidly developing technology. Our schools already make use of simple audio-visual devices and materials, but little has been done to provide the simulated reality-experience training that has been advanced in the armed forces and industry. High-school staffs need to consider as many ways as possible in which old and new technical resources can be used.

Schedules. — Administrators are faced with the task of experimenting with schedules to provide for better instruction. Not all activities can be accommodated within 40 to 50 minute periods. In work which includes pupil planning, laboratory experiments, and going into the community, longer periods are needed. Flexibility and willingness to vary from current practice should receive community support.

Curriculum Change. — The curriculum must change from year to year if it is to be responsive to the needs of our dynamic culture. As times change, new courses will be needed and others should be deleted. Each high-school faculty should develop an organization which guarantees continuous evaluation, planning, and coordination of the total program in terms of the changing requirements and opportunities of our society, and the potentialities and purposes of the individual.

The American high school represents a great achievement, one of which all can be proud. It has contributed immeasurably to the raising of our standards of living and culture and has been a major force in the development of a unified society. It has been responsive to requests to fulfill many functions. The views summarized here reflect confidence that the American high school will respond to demands in the present and future as positively as it has in the past. ●

The Situation Today Is a "Chaotic Mess"

Considerations Favoring National Certification of Teachers

MYRON LIEBERMAN

In The Journal of Teacher Education

THE certification of teachers today is in a chaotic mess. This phase of education cannot be cleaned up without basic changes in our approach to it. It is late in the game to dilly-dally further with mere juggling of credit hours required in this or that subject or with making a big to-do about the fact that some subject-matter specialists attend the same conferences as some teachers and professors of education. Our situation requires a more substantial, more concrete, and more permanent step toward resolving the fundamental problems of teacher certification.

I favor national certification of teachers. This will not solve all the problems of teacher certification; indeed, a plan embodying it might be poor, even dangerous. But national certification will increase the probability of good solutions to the basic problems of certification.

By "national certification of teachers," I mean a situation in which the *number* and *kind* of teaching certificates, and the *requirements* for each, are substantially the same all over the United States. However, I neither advocate nor oppose the certification of teachers by the federal government. National certification, as I define the term, is not the same thing as certification by the federal government. National certification can come about in a variety of ways. Federal certification is only one of these ways, and probably not the most feasible one at the present time.

Any plan for certifying teachers has both advantages and disadvantages. Acceptance of a plan does not imply belief in its perfection. It involves only belief that its advantages outweigh its disadvantages

Myron Lieberman is Director, Basic Research Department, The Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland, Ohio. Reported from The Journal of Teacher Education, *XI (June 1960), 191-201.*

to an extent greater than is the case with any other plan. National certification may well be characterized by some unique disadvantages. So may alternative plans, including the one currently in effect, in which each state sets its own certification requirements. If people were fully cognizant of the inadequacies of our present certification structure, they would be much more willing, even eager, to change it.

It is not intended here to document all these inadequacies. But it is possible to briefly show ways in which national certification would be an improvement over the present system.

More than 33,000,000 Americans change their residence every year; more than a third of these changes are interstate in character. This high degree of geographical mobility is essential to our economic and political freedom. State barriers to teaching obstruct the free movement of people which is so important in our society. Teachers should be free to work anywhere in the country where their services are needed without having to contend with *ad hoc* state requirements. This calls for a way of determining certification requirements which transcends state lines.

MOBILITY IMPLICATIONS

The tremendous mobility of our student population also has implications for certification that should not be ignored. It seems obvious that we must ensure a reasonable degree of educational continuity on the part of students. Such continuity cannot be achieved merely by prescribing a continuous public-school curriculum. Unless programs for preparing teachers are geared to this curriculum, it will be taught to many students by inadequate teachers. In short, to whatever extent the school curriculum should transcend state lines, certification requirements should transcend them also.

A child taught by poor teachers does not have equality of educational opportunity vis-à-vis a child taught by good teachers. The critical reader may concede the inequality but point out that no system of certification can eliminate it. No matter what the standards for a teaching certificate may be, some teachers will be better than others. To reduce the range of teacher differences by certifying only an elite group would deprive most children of teachers. On the other hand, the lower the standards, the larger the gap between teachers certified, and hence the more inequality. This is the dilemma. Why should national certification probably result in a better solution than our present system of certification?

National certification would not eliminate all differences between certified teachers. However, it would probably reduce the range of these differences by preventing the certification of large numbers of teachers of low quality. National certification would have this effect because it is practically inconceivable that an agency charged with recommending requirements for the entire country would recommend them at the level of the low-standard states. The requirements of such states are geared to a local instead of a national view of what we can and should pay to get teachers.

RAISING STANDARDS

Perhaps it would be useful to indicate why national certification is not likely to lower standards in the high-standard states while raising them in the low-standard ones. The situation in medicine illustrates my reasoning on this point. Medical licensure is still the legal responsibility of the states. In practice, medical associations have gotten most of the state medical boards to accept the same requirements for licensure. As a result, we have a national but not a federal pattern of medical education and licensure in this country.

National certification in education can and should be brought about in the same way. If it is, the impact of national certification will be to raise the minimum standards for certification in some states without lowering them in others. As long as certification is the legal responsibility of the states, professional organizations will be free to work for standards higher than the national minimums. The efforts of these organizations are almost invariably directed at putting a floor under certification, not a ceiling over it. Furthermore, states and communities which want teachers trained above the national or state minimums, whatever they may be, can always get such teachers by paying for them.

If minimum standards in all states were reasonably high, it would be preferable to use employment rather than certification controls to secure superior teachers. This is done in some other professions characterized by high standards over the country, despite the fact that their professional personnel are licensed on a state basis. Unfortunately, this situation reflects a level of organizational effectiveness and leadership which seems a long way off in education. If our professional organizations are unable to achieve national certification as long as the states retain legal control of certification, such control will eventually be eliminated without regard to teachers' views on what should replace it.

National certification would be in the selfinterest of teachers. As an occupational group, teachers are severely handicapped by the low certification standards in many states. These low standards have an adverse impact on the prestige of teachers everywhere. This impact is considerable, although its effects are indirect. One cannot confine the effects of low standards to the states which have them. Our society is too mobile and interdependent for this to happen.

Certain occupations carry considerable prestige and economic rewards wherever persons in them decide to locate. This is not true of teaching, which loses many able people everywhere because of its uneven occupational status. If teachers ever grasp fully the extent to which their occupational interdependence cuts across state lines, they will become much stronger supporters of national certification than they are at present. Low standards anywhere are a monkey on the back of all teachers, whether or not they perceive the situation this way.

Many objections to national certification rest on the assumption that it will be too similar to the present practice, the only difference being the national rather than the state scale. If I thought this, I would be opposed to national certification myself. My belief is that by changing the *level* at which certification requirements are decided, we will thereby change the character of the requirements themselves. This is why I do not believe that national certification will lead to undesirable doctrinal tests.

The fear that national certification would lead to undesirable ideological conformity is not supported by experience from other occupations. Furthermore, we should be aware of the extent to which this evil prevails now, as, for example, in the attempts to prevent members of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People from being certified in many southern states. Does anyone in his right mind suppose that a national agency would even try, let alone get away with, such a practice?

Canons of technical competence are one thing; those of ideological persuasion are another. True, the fear is that a national agency will try to palm off the latter as the former. However, state and local school systems get away with this now only because neither the country as a whole nor the teaching profession puts up any resistance to the practice. This lack of resistance makes no sense if we accept the concept of national certification. In that case, special political or nonprofessional requirements for certification in any state will be instantly regarded as a matter of *national* concern by *both* lay and professional groups. •

• Fifty-three percent of the educators responding in a recent random poll of members of Phi Delta Kappa, the professional fraternity for men in education, believe that present certification requirements are sound. Only 12 percent expressed strong beliefs that they were unsound, and 24 percent tended to think so. Another 12 percent had no opinion on the matter.

• Tell a man something is bad, he's not at all sure he wants to give it up. Describe it as stupid and he knows it's the better part of caution to listen.—*David Seabury.*

The Role of the Junior College in Higher Education

HOWARD A. CAMPION

In College And University

Howard A. Campion, retired Associate Superintendent of Los Angeles City Schools, is Consultant, Master Plan Survey of Higher Education, State of California. Reported from College and University, *XXXV (Summer 1960), 426–34.*

THE junior college is a relatively new institution in the development of American education. None existed in 1900; today the nation boasts 700. California has 66; Texas, 46; New York, 43; Wisconsin, 36; and the number of junior colleges increases almost daily. Two new ones have been authorized by citizens of local districts in California since the beginning of this calendar year.

The formation and development of this type of institution is being urged not alone by local citizens, but with the blessings of the four-year colleges and universities and with the support of business, industry, labor and service clubs, community organizations, and churches.

Such popularity must be deserved—why?

First, a look at the purposes and stated functions of a junior college. Typical of "purpose" statements is that of the California Junior College Association which was reproduced in a 1958 California State Bulletin.

PURPOSES

1. *College transfer education* (lower division): It provides lower-division college work for those students who plan to continue their education beyond that offered by the college.

2. *Vocational terminal education*: It provides vocational training to those students whose period of formal education will end when they complete junior college. This training is designed as a one-year or two-year program to help students develop occupational competencies and the personal qualities essential to wholesome living.

3. *General education*: It is intended that every junior-college student shall have opportunity to get an education which will prepare him to function effectively as a member of his family, his community, his state, his nation, and his world.

4. *Guidance*: It is a specific responsibility to assist students to "find themselves." A program of guidance is provided so that every student may discover his aptitudes,

choose a life work, and prepare for the successful pursuit of the life work he chooses.

5. *Adult education*: There should be cooperation with the high schools and other public institutions in providing instruction and cultural activities to assist in meeting the educational needs of many adults living in the community.

To the above list of purposes many junior colleges add the following:

6. Remedial and "maintenance" education for those who, through their own fault or because of fortuitous circumstances, have failed to attain a scholastic record that will admit them to a four-year college or university.

7. Serve as a cultural center for the community by providing lectures, concerts, forums, and dramatic performances.

CHARACTERISTICS

Certain definite characteristics have emerged to distinguish this institution. Usually a junior college legally is a part of the public-school system, but educationally it is a part of higher education. A junior college is local in control and orientation and, therefore, more responsive to community needs and desires. Junior college is the only "open door" remaining in the scheme of higher education. For many youths it provides "another chance" to secure higher education. The program is usually flexible and diversified to meet the needs of people of widely varying interests and abilities and to serve a rapidly changing economic society.

A Master Plan Survey of California higher education has recently been completed. This study served to clarify the present and future role of the junior college in that state. The recommendations accord the junior college a full partnership in the California system of higher education. If all recommendations are carried out, these institutions will grow from a 1960 enrolment of 100,000 to 300,000 full-time students in 1975. Part of this growth will result from a recommendation to reduce the number of freshman and sophomore students in the University of California and in the state colleges. It was recommended that this number (now about 51 percent of the student body) be reduced 10 percent by 1975.

There are, however, some unsolved problems facing the junior college. These include:

Will the junior colleges be forced by increasing enrolment to adopt restrictive admission requirements? Will the "selection" of students tend to destroy the "open door" policy, and if so, where will certain American youth find opportunity for further education? If this should happen, America may have to invent still another and different kind of post-high-school institution.

What about retention? If the "open door" policy, is preserved, may we expect to find a few who will not or cannot profit by the school's offerings? No college can justify the expense of retaining "riders." Should the junior college develop a uniform policy of probation, recognizing their exploratory function by giving those who fail in first attempts another opportunity, yet take steps to prevent continuous enrolment of the malingerer?

What will be the effect of overloading the already hard-pressed area of curriculum planning? Will the higher cost of terminal, vocational, technical, etc., courses tend to favor the less expensive academic curriculum? This could be the most serious threat to the character of this institution which came into being to serve educational needs of *all* the people.

What is the significance of the movement to drop the "junior" from the names of these colleges? Is this good, or does it indicate an ambition to become full-fledged four-year colleges?

One of the most pressing problems is that of adequately financing a broad diversified program. Where will the money come from if we are to keep the door open? Can we abandon the hope of keeping the school tuition-free? With increased competition from universities and colleges for state funds, how much aid can local junior colleges expect from that source? Can the local citizens stand further increase in their already high taxes on real property (homes)?

How can the junior college aid in developing the technicians our economy so desperately needs? The technician's area of skill and knowledge lies between that of the skilled tradesman and the engineer. The training of these technicians is not a high-school job. It should not be necessary to fill such jobs with graduate engineers and scientists, yet it is happening. The ability to carry on these tasks can be developed in one or two years of post-high-school specialized training; it therefore becomes a challenge to the two-year college.

The junior college must attain a balance that represents its position between secondary and professional education. We must find the right mix of vocational and transfer students; the right balance of scholastic ability and subject mastery in our faculties; the best allocation of upper and lower division students, of the superior and lesser endowed.

There is more to be said about the junior college, but this is enough to indicate that this new institution is here, and here to stay. It will play an increasingly important role in our scheme of higher education in the next decade, and will aid in assuring this country that the maximum human potential will be discovered and developed to the advantage of our social, economic, military, and individual welfare. It will keep the door open for the development of ability of whatever kind. It will, we hope, live up to the expectations of its sponsors and glorify its American birthright. •

Languages by Electronics

MAX ZELDNER

In High Points

THE principal called in the chairman of the foreign-language department and—showing him an official circular from the Board of Education — said, "Here, you are getting $2,500. Spend it!"

The chairman was flabbergasted, of course! A glance at the document explained the windfall.

"The federal government has made available funds under the National Defense Education Act for the purchase of audio-visual equipment and materials to be used in improving instruction in foreign languages." Attached to this notice was a listing of suggested equipment. The list included television receivers, slide and filmstrip projectors (both silent and sound), projection screens, tape recorders, phonographs, radios, desk-viewer-filmstrips, microphone equipment, and the necessary equipment for placing the materials in classroom use.

When the news of this gift was made known to the teachers they were bewildered. Must we buy more equipment? Where will we keep all the machines? Who will take care of them? When?

To be sure, audio-visual equipment is important—to supplement and complement the regular school work. But if these machines, purchased in ever greater numbers, enter the language classrooms during the very limited time set aside for instruction, then the teacher is displaced and the machines take over. And if the results of two or three years of foreign-language teaching have been poor thus far, with the installation of electronics the results may be even poorer. Before, students couldn't speak the foreign language; now, if this deluge of mechanical devices continues, they will not be able to read it either.

MILITARY EXPERIENCE

In discussions on foreign-language instruction, one often encounters the argument that the military is highly successful with extensive use of audio-visual equipment. That is true. During World War II the Army did succeed in training large numbers of men in one or another of 50 different languages in a matter of several months. The Foreign Service Institute is doing it now. Why can't

Max Zeldner is a teacher at Fort Hamilton High School, Brooklyn, New York. Reported from High Points, *XLII (June 1960), 17–22.*

it be accomplished in our high schools?

The students in the government schools are usually mature, intelligent, educated, professional people who have a real need and strong desire for learning the language. It may mean promotion, greater prestige, or a more desirable position overseas. Motivation is very high. These strongly motivated students have from four to six hours a day, five days a week, in about six months of intensive classroom instruction, or about 600 contact hours. Also, these hours are spent with a native-speaking tutor while a scientific linguist monitors the class. And how many students are there in a class? Enrolment is *from three to six per class;* the *average* class has *three* students. After class, the student studies at home using books, records, and borrowed tapes.

HIGH-SCHOOL SITUATION

Compare that with the situation in any large public high school. The student in the heterogeneous class may have an IQ of anywhere between 85 and 140. His reason for studying the language may be that he is college bound and has to present a foreign language, or that he was given the language because there was no other subject he could fit into his program. He may have wanted to study Spanish but, since only a French teacher was available, he was put into French, which he hates.

If he attends school regularly and is never absent or late, he will receive about three hours of instruction per week, and he may devote another three hours to homework. But in the 40 minutes or so that the student is in class, there are 34 more students in that room!

And so we have 600 hours under the so-called "Army Method" as against 200 hours in our schools, and three students as against 35. Even if the teacher should remain silent, each student would have only about a minute to recite, read, or say something in the foreign tongue. Furthermore, the way our large high schools are now organized, there are numerous but necessary interruptions during the period and many periods are canceled altogether.

YES AND NO

Audio-visual equipment and materials – yes! *But not in place of the regular class period.* These mechanical aids may and should be used when there is a real need: in direct connection with a given lesson, or topic, or current event. When used at the appropriate time they may increase and stimulate the learner. Sound and pictures can do a great deal to help clarify and extend the meaning of the verbal symbols and make the abstract real and concrete.

But without resorting to machines, and before training our teachers to become electronic engineers, we have in our classrooms readily available visual aids. There is, first of all, that wonderful visual aid, the blackboard. Then there are maps, charts, stamps and coins, pictures, flash cards, posters, and foreign newspapers and magazines.

Some schools may already have enough audio-visual equipment to satisfy the needs of their particular foreign-language department. The recorders and projectors that are already there may be gathering dust in closets and book-rooms. Some of our more open-minded instructors, having experimented with tape recorders, consoles, and projectors, have found them wanting. Disregarding the loss of time and the lack of proper soundproof recording rooms, these teachers have found that the greater use of tapes and films actually interferes with their teaching. There is a magnetic-tape curtain between teacher and class, a celluloid film between the personality of the teacher and the receptive, impressionable mind of the pupil. There is no longer that desirable teacher-pupil, pupil-teacher, and pupil-pupil relationship.

If there is a greater need for communication between peoples, and if our aim is to achieve greater proficiency in conversation, the foreign-language student must hear more and speak more. That requires time and more time, practice and more practice, in and out of school. As an example of what can be accomplished we have only to look at the fine results in language study achieved by many foreign countries. And the students there have probably never used a console, or a tape-recorder-playback, or earphones, or projector.

Of a list of 36 countries prepared for Unesco, the United States is last both in regard to starting age and in years of continuity in the study of foreign languages. What is especially significant about the Unesco list is that in Austria, West Germany, Mexico, France, Denmark, Russia, Sweden, and England the study of foreign language is compulsory. In the United States it is an elective and most students choose not to elect it.

A SUGGESTION

The funds granted by our government are certainly timely and welcome. But they can be utilized to better advantage if only 10 percent were allotted for audio-visual materials and the balance for student scholarships. These scholarships could be granted to outstanding, carefully selected students for study-tours of the country whose language is being studied. The study-tours could be conducted during the summers under the guidance of experienced, mature language teachers.

This type of award and recognition will tend to encourage greater effort and higher achievement on the part of the entire student population. It should, furthermore, result in a marked increase in the quality and quantity of foreign-language instruction—thus fulfilling the aim, in letter and spirit, of the National Defense Education Act. •

Have You Provided for Your Old Age?

Tax-Favored Annuities for Public-School Employes

G. ALVIN WILSON

In School Business Affairs

WOULD you like to reduce your income-tax payments and at the same time provide for your old age? If your answer is "yes," a tax-favored annuity may help achieve your aims.

There is now available to public-school employes a legal means to purchase an individual and voluntary tax-sheltered retirement-income annuity. We have a statement from the Internal Revenue Service declaring that our school district is tax exempt under Section 501 (3) (c) of the Internal Revenue Code of 1954. Under provisions of this legislation as amended in 1958, an educational organization may provide a plan whereby an employe may allocate a portion of his salary for the purchase of such an annuity.

Insurance companies have been slow in promoting this business and that may be one reason why only a few schools have made use of the plan to date. The situation will undoubtedly change as the agents come to realize that the sale of such annuities to school personnel is a profitable field.

In our school, the board of education appointed a committee to investigate the possibilities of an annuity plan. The real problem was to select the best companies for the service we were seeking, rather than the ones which, at first glance, might seem to have the most favorable rates. We found Best's *Manual of Life Insurance Companies* was one of the good sources of information. Although our committee recommended but one company, we do not believe it would be particularly difficult to work with more than one.

G. Alvin Wilson is Assistant Superintendent at Oak Park and River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois, and President of the Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada. Reported from School Business Affairs, *XXVI (August 1960), 17–21.*

The primary provisions needed to make an annuity program available to a school staff are: (*a*) The annuity contract must be purchased by the school. (*b*) The annuity contract must be nonforfeitable (all rights vested with the employe). (*c*) Each participating employe must direct the school to purchase his annuity and to withhold the premium from his salary. The amount of annuity which may be purchased is limited to approximately 15 percent of contract salary; the percentage may be substantially increased, however, using a years-of-service formula. (*d*) There can be no life-insurance feature.

The chart below indicates approximate annuities payable at age 65 for life and with 10 years certain. The computations—an average of three companies which submitted bids—are used here for illustration only, and are based on an annual premium payment of $100, assuming continuous payment to age 65 from beginning age:

Beginning Age	Annual Return with Estimated Dividends Applied to Purchase a Paid-up Addition: Men	Women
40	$225	$225
45	190	165
50	130	115
55	80	70
60	35	30

We believed this to be a favorable program for many of our staff, and we urged their consideration of the following points:

Security.—Protection is provided to those who live long. Under most of the options, a person must receive his annuity more than 10 years in order to get back as much as he paid for the policy.

Income-tax Saving. — There are substantial income-tax advantages, inasmuch as no income tax is payable on these annuities until after retirement. A person in the 25 percent bracket reduces his current income tax $100 for each $400 invested in an annuity of this type; the saving is greater for those in the higher brackets. Although tax is payable when the annuity is collected, the amount will ordinarily be lower because of reduced income after retirement and because of the individual's "age 65" exemption.

Cash Surrender Value.—Because there is a 10 to 25 percent reduced cash surrender value the first few years a policy is in effect, money once paid in should not be withdrawn except in great emergency. Income tax is payable on money withdrawn.

Paid-up Annuities.—If a participating employe discontinues his premium payments, he may take a paid-up annuity according to the terms of the contract; it will be for a reduced amount from that shown on the chart.

Nonpayment of Premiums. — If an employe discontinues his premiums for a year or two, he may reinstate the policy by paying the back premium plus interest.

To simplify bookkeeping, our school sets a minimum amount of $300 per year and requires that all annual premium payments be in multiples of $100. For this reason, too, all dividends are applied to the purchase of paid-up retirement additions. The amount paid in may be increased or decreased or a policy may be started or stopped at the beginning of any school year —but only at the beginning, for the contract is purchased by the school in December to get the advantage of a single annual payment. •

Do Colleges Determine What the High Schools Teach?

Warren C. Seyfert
In The Clearing House

THERE is only one possible straightforward answer to the question, "Do the colleges determine what the high schools teach?" That answer is "Yes," and it must continue to be "Yes." Conditions would indeed be in a deplorable state were the two institutions so logically related to have no influence on one another.

Unfortunately for the congeniality of this relationship, many school people, having given this answer, begin to inveigh against any such influence. They view with alarm, and they pass resolutions. This they do when what is most needed is a serious analysis of college-on-school influence. School people should understand more about such influences. They must be able to judge which are benign, which are harmful, and what can and ought to be done about the situation.

Collegiate influence on the work of the schools is most direct and most easily recognized on what we commonly call college-preparatory courses or the program for college-bound boys and girls. What I say here will seem to have this focus, but it would be a mistake to think this to be the only point at which the impact is felt.

Warren C. Seyfert is Headmaster at Milwaukee Country Day School, Wisconsin. Reported from The Clearing House, *XXXIV (May 1960), 515-20.*

The colleges can and do determine to some measure the curriculums of secondary schools. We have the specific statements of courses which a given college says—in its catalog—its applicants ought to have taken.

As a secondary-school administrator working in a school which concentrates on the education of boys able to do college work, I am not particularly attentive to the tables of course names any college lists in its catalog. I and our faculty are, however, mindful of the total picture any given college presents of its admissions requirements and, even more so, of whatever general pattern one can discern from a study of the admissions requirements of many colleges.

While college-admissions committees are most unlikely ever to be prosecuted for violating antitrust laws, there are enough similarities among their demands and suggestions to make a schoolman wonder.

But not only does he wonder; he

plays an extremely conservative game in developing sequences of courses and other activities for his college prospects. If there seems to be a trend toward a requirement of at least three years of foreign-language study, he standardizes this for all his students. If advanced electives in English are rarely mentioned, his school has none such. If fine-arts courses are rarely blessed for admissions credit, his school is likely to make it impossible for a college-prep boy or girl to get such courses. If enough colleges mention the "well-rounded student" the organization man becomes our model.

There is also the influence of admission examinations, required or recommended. And here I want to call attention to a phenomenon at least distantly related to the growth and consolidation of college admissions testing, and that is an almost explosive increase in standardized testing generally. All of us in the schools have noticed this and many of us are alarmed by it. The colleges are not alone responsible for this particular development, but in their efforts to find more precise sources of data for making distinctions among applicants they will make steadily more use of such test results and, in the process, will encourage schools to get more data from a variety of tests on permanent record cards. And around and around we go.

Such means of college influence on the schools as I have just mentioned are, I believe, those that most commonly come to mind when the topic is discussed. They are, to be sure, the most evident, and they are, in my judgment, most open to modification by thoughtful and united action by the schools if modification is appropriate. They are known and openly published; they are largely spelled out in detail; they are "official." I am convinced, however, that there are other kinds of collegiate influence on secondary schools which are more subtle, often harder for both school and college to detect, less predictable in effect, and altogether, more potent than anything I have mentioned thus far.

UNOFFICIAL INFLUENCES

One of these is "unofficial institutional." It is whatever a college does about preparing teachers for the schools. The young men and women who come into our classrooms are college-made. They may be remade through experience and other in-service activities, but they surely bring a significant part of their college backgrounds into the classroom and use it on or with our boys and girls. If they have acquired a respect for scholarship, they are likely to want their students to obtain it, too. If they have been taught that only scholarship is important, they may have great difficulty comprehending what the secondary-school's proper function is.

If the college treats professional studies as necessary evils, tolerated only to assist graduates in getting jobs, the schools employing these graduates have a minor training problem but a major psychological problem in helping such young people to become sensitive and constructive faculty members. If colleges treat their students who wish to become teachers as important and dedicated public servants in the making, the influence on the schools is positive and good. If, on the other hand, the college thinks of its preteaching program as a place to deposit students of indifferent ability and vague motivation, the schools can only suffer seriously from this collegiate climate.

I do not insist that every college have a program of undergraduate courses in the field of pedagogy any more than I would insist that each one have a major in business administration or nursing. No one college should be expected to meet all human needs. But every college must expect that some of its graduates every year will, sooner or later, become teachers, and the attitudes the college conveys to its students about this calling and the advice and help it gives them for entering it will have consequences of the greatest dimensions for the schools.

I have wished here to avoid making value judgments. But I will say that I believe the single most powerful source of influence of colleges on the schools is their attitudes and activities in the area of teacher preparation. Still at the judgment level, I conclude that colleges are beginning to give teacher preparation more careful and thoughtful attention, to the eventual benefit of the schools.

There is one other line of unofficial institutional effect on the schools, and this is perhaps best described as feedback from collegiate guidance and placement activities. Until recently, it was rather difficult to motivate the able and alert college-bound senior, because he knew, through a reliable grapevine, that when he got to college he would be put in courses with a miscellaneous collection of freshmen, all of whom would be treated as though they were completely stupid and wholly unequipped to do college work.

Within the past five years or so, however, and significantly because of widespread changes in college attitudes and procedures, there has been a noticeable change in point of view of high schoolers. With more placement testing at college entrance, the development of advanced freshman sections, the giving of college credit for superior secondary-school work, and so on, many high-school juniors and seniors are being stimulated to a degree of scholastic output it would have been hard to imagine a decade ago. Those who are familiar with the Advanced Placement Program will recognize this as an outstanding example of genuine school-college cooperation.

There are other kinds of collegiate influences which have their effect on the schools.

In addition to institutional influences there are personal influences. There are the activities of college personnel when operating personally but in roles appropriate to their positions as university teachers and scholars. Their preparation of text books is one of these—and a very important one. Their work in groups or as individuals in developing new courses and teaching materials is another. Their research is one more.

But there also is a less pleasant kind I must mention. This comes from the college teacher who steps outside his field of scholarship, abandons the disciplines of scholarship, and lets go a blast at the schools because he thinks thereby he will titillate his audience, get headlines, and another invitation to speak at a higher fee. I exaggerate, I know, but you will recognize what I have in mind, and you undoubtedly have sat and silently seethed, as I have, through his parade of half-truths and witty, but unsound, analogies. What the net effects on the schools may be of this Delphic approach I am not certain. I note, however, that oracles went out of style some centuries ago, and the sites of their operations are now populated exclusively by tourists with cameras loaded.

STATUS INFLUENCE

I wish now to comment on still another spread of collegiate influence. This is a very broad influence and, unlike much of what I have said before, it does not apply principally to college-bound youngsters. College-going is now a status symbol much more than it has ever been. It will continue to be such in our lifetimes. Hence, more students are going to want to take the courses and do the things which seem to be required for college admission. This is likely to mean that many students who ought not to will undertake courses of high academic requirement with little or no success. And we may also be tempted to develop courses which look like real preparation for college but actually are not. Not the colleges themselves but society is putting an added responsibility on the guidance programs and curriculum makers in our secondary schools.

Even though the college-preparatory group may be a minority in a school—and this condition becomes less frequent—its attitude toward learning rather commonly determines the academic climate of the school. If you accept this and the proposition that colleges and schools cooperatively are improving the academic tone of this group, you conclude that the academic pitch of the entire school will be raised somewhat.

I have not given a complete catalog of the ways in which colleges may determine what is done in the schools, but I think I have made enough entries to establish my main point. This is not a simple business. It is not a single wave which moves inexorably in one direction. ●

A Recent Texas Decision

Marriage "No Cause" for Barring High-School Students

LEO O. GARBER
In The Nation's Schools

WHAT authority does a board of education have to enact rules and regulations concerning married students? A reading of the statutes is seldom rewarding. Few, if any, states have enacted specific legislation covering the matter. Therefore, any legal guidance available will have its source in the common, or decisional, law.

Surprisingly enough, there has been little litigation in this field. The question first came before the courts a number of years ago as the result of board rules barring students who marry from continuing to attend public schools. When the legality of such rules was questioned, the courts of both Kansas and Mississippi held that school boards were without authority to enact rules that made it impossible for married students to continue their education at public expense.

Then, about two years ago, another case involving the legality of a school-board rule relating to married students was questioned in Tennessee. Here, the board, alarmed at the number of marriages taking place among high-school students and their possible effect on the general well-being of the school, enacted a rule that any student who married during a school term would be automatically expelled for the remainder of that term. The court, taking judicial cognizance of the rulings in the Kansas and Mississippi cases previously mentioned, ruled that while a school board may not provide permanent expulsion for students who marry, it may bar them for a reasonable length of time, if it believes this is necessary for the well-being of the school.

Leo O. Garber is Director, Educational Service Bureau, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia. Reported from The Nation's Schools, *LXVI (August 1960), 66, 92.*

Aside from the cases just mentioned, there appears to have been no such litigation in the higher courts until recently, when the court of civil appeals of Texas held that a board rule restricting married students from participating in extracurricular activities as reasonable and, therefore, enforceable.

In this case, one Jerry Kissick brought an action seeking an injunction to restrain a board of education from enforcing a rule providing that "married students or previously married students be restricted wholly to classroom work; that they be barred from participating in athletics or other exhibitions, and that they not be permitted to hold class office or other positions of honor except academic honors."

The plaintiff was a letterman on the football team during the 1958 season. While only 16 years old, he was married (March 1959) to a girl who was 15. As a result he was barred from participating in football because of the board rule. He stated that he planned to continue on the team during his remaining years in high school and that he was looking forward "to an athletic scholarship and college."

Specifically, the plaintiff contended the rule violated public policy because it penalized marriage. The court rejected this contention. In doing so it agreed that "it is . . . the policy of the law to look with favor on marriage," but it noted that this "principle, however, is referable to those of lawful age (male, 21; female, 18)." With respect to those under age, it stated that the legislative policy, as reflected in the statutes, was different. It stated that they revealed "a public policy . . . unfavorable to and in outright discouragement of 'underage applicants' for matrimony."

The plaintiff also contended that, since the board rule was enacted following the date of his marriage, it was inapplicable to him because it was retroactive in its effect. The court stated that the constitutional provision applies only where the "application of the law would take away or impair vested rights acquired under existing law." The court again overruled the plaintiff's contention.

The court also noted that the plaintiff's constitutional right to attend the school in question and participate in its functions was subject to such reasonable rules and regulations as the board might adopt. With respect to the board rule here challenged, the court held it was reasonable.

Finally, with respect to the plaintiff's contention that the resolution in question was "arbitrary, capricious, discriminatory, unreasonable," the court again ruled in favor of the board, saying: "Undoubtedly . . . (the regulation) had a direct relationship to objectives sought to be accomplished by school authorities—that of discouraging the marriage of teen-age students."

This case is significant because it adds a little more to our understanding of the authority of a school board to take action that has the effect of discouraging teen-age marriages. It serves as a precedent for holding that while married students may not be barred from attending school, they may be barred from participating in extracurricular activities. Whether the courts of other states will follow this rule remains to be seen. They need not, but, in the absence of any statute to the contrary, it is believed that most, if not all, will. •

Role Functions of the Teacher

WILLIAM CLARK TROW

In The Dynamics of Instructional Groups

FOUR basic concepts can be used to categorize certain individual and social interrelations that are of prime significance in education. These are personality, position, role, and skill.

The hypothesis proposed here is that quality of teaching is a function not only of the degree of skill development but also of the intrusion of personality and role factors into the teacher's classroom behavior. Personality factors modify the individual's ability to recognize and to assume the appropriate role in a particular situation. As a consequence, the development of the needed skill may be accelerated or retarded.

Clearly it becomes necessary to delineate the roles for the performance of which appropriate skills must be developed. Then we can consider the personality factors that may interfere with the recognition and acceptance of these roles and the development of skill in their performance.

The teacher's instructional and administrative roles are, of course, predominant. But there are, in addition, other important roles practiced outside of class, which influence classroom behavior. These may be called the roles of the faculty member, the community liaison officer, and the learner.

Typically, the beginning teacher has never before been a member of an organizational hierarchy. As a staff member he suddenly finds himself close to the bottom of such a hierarchy. Will he be able to perceive the organizational patterns, the attitudes toward the ideas he may have acquired in his training, whether they are sought or regarded as impractical, and where the power lies—whether in the administration, in the board of education, or perhaps in a clique of older teachers? Social perception of a rather high order is needed. Amid the jealousies and dissatisfactions that sometimes permeate a faculty, teachers may find that they are blocked in various ways, even to the extent of not being able to conduct their own teaching as they would like.

William Clark Trow is Professor of Education and Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Reported from The Dynamics of Instructional Groups, *the 59th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (1960), Chapter III, 30–50.*

Patterns of community relationships differ widely in different schools, and the role of community liaison officer will differ widely. In some places, the school walls virtually shut out the community, and parent contacts are reduced to the traditional report card. In others, outside resource persons and frequent excursions supplement instruction, and parent-teacher conferences and home visitations are the rule. To follow the school pattern is, of course, the safe way for teachers, since innovations will likely be unpopular.

As far as the learner role is concerned, it is generally recognized that the undergraduate program for teacher education is only a beginning to get the young teacher started. Whether a teacher learns from his students, from formal or informal courses, or from his own reading and study, this role is important, not only to make up for weaknesses in his education and training but also to keep abreast of new discoveries.

Let us now consider some of the administrative and executive roles of the teacher. First, that of a disciplinarian. In a real sense, though few teachers realize it at first, this is not a separate role at all but a part of the total instructional process. As a rule, when the teaching is good there is no problem of discipline. Still the problem of control remains, not only in the classroom but also in the corridors, lunchroom, library, and study hall. Shall autocratic or democratic methods be employed? Here, even more perhaps than in other roles, it is clear that personality factors enter into the teacher's decision as to what to do. It may even interfere with the development of skill.

Other administrative roles include those of measurer and record-keeper (clerk), learning-aids officer (librarian), and program director (planner). Personality factors may intrude into the performance of learned skills in most of these roles, but the skills are necessary.

INSTRUCTIONAL ROLES

In addition to the administrative and executive roles of the teacher, there are the more purely instructional roles. These may be differentiated as motivator, resource person, evaluator, and adapter. While they are basically all a part of the same general task, they require different perceptions and different skills.

The task of the teacher as motivator is to discover whether the pupils are emotionally ready to learn and, if not, to take such steps as may be necessary to develop that readiness. Some teachers may be constitutionally unable to follow all the guide lines, but in any case skill-training is indicated.

The role of the teacher as resource person is a complex one and should perhaps be broken down into smaller parts—telling, explaining, and demonstrating. Explaining and demonstrating, repeating and repeating again, require patience and probably other personality characteristics that many do not have. Can they be acquired through practice?

As evaluator, the teacher is expected to determine the levels of performance of the pupils. He judges their abilities and recognizes their physical and mental handicaps and their special talents. Then, as adapter, he creates the best kind of climate possible for the different personalities, challenging some, encouraging others, and giving help where help is needed. This latter role, perhaps more than any of the others, seems to be dependent on personality factors, though the skills needed for its proper performance can undoubtedly be developed.

INFLUENCING FACTORS

Having indicated the several roles of the teacher, we can now briefly consider the factors which lead to success or failure in performing their roles. First would be those factors which influence in one way or another the perceptions of the teacher's role, as a consequence of which they might, or might not, be performed to everyone's satisfaction. Some conditions which produce discrepancies in perceiving teaching roles are suggested.

There is, for example, the importance of social-class differences in education. To the middle-class teacher, the language habits and aggressions of lower-class children suggest moral obliguity. As a consequence, he perceives his role as that of the disciplinarian, employing punishment for misdeeds instead of using his skill in the instructional roles that presumably would be more helpful to the pupils in acquiring new responses. On the other hand, upper-class youth are likely to be treated quite differently for some of the same offenses.

The role of adapter in adjusting to student ability also may be played in different ways. Some teachers perceive their role as one of devotion to the slow learners because "the rest can take care of themselves." Others adapt to the bright pupils because "the rest can't get it anyway."

Teacher roles are influenced in various ways by the administration. It is said that an autocratic principal or superintendent produces autocracy in the classroom, while a democratic form of administration encourages democratic classroom practices. When there are discrepancies in the perception of teacher and administrative roles with respect to organizational climate, there will tend to be conflict.

It is natural that any teacher should affect the various personalities in his class differently, whether because of his own personality pattern, the roles he assumes, or his skill in their performance. It is not intended here to analyze individual student personalities but merely to suggest the probability that the quest for the good teacher as such, like the quest for the good leader, is a fruitless one unless the interaction of teacher and class is considered.

To what extent do personality factors intrude in the teacher's perception of his roles as well as in the development of skills in performing those roles? First there is the teacher's motivational needs. Any vocation satisfies certain needs of the person who chooses it. Some persons with strong needs for security and affection, find satisfaction in teaching. In a more extreme form, these persons might tend to be overpermissive and overindulgent. Other persons may feel a need for recognition and status. If they are at all insecure, they would be expected to emphasize discipline, marks, and standards. Any skill-training to correct such behavior would tend to fall flat so long as those who practice it cling to these personality patterns.

Sometimes, however, the needs are not as obvious as the characteristics which have developed to satisfy them. The dominant personality types will presumably leave no doubt as to "who's boss around here," and will probably find it difficult to acquiesce in pupil choice or to submit to administrative rules. On the other hand, how submissive a teacher can be and yet be effective is a matter of opinion. The "yes man" may be skilful in his role, but much depends on whether he says "yes" only to the boss or to everyone who talks to him.

It is no doubt true that some people are more anxious and fearful than others even when the amount of threat is approximately constant. It seems certain that the "worrier" will find it hard to develop role skills because he will be unable to trust his own judgment, or even believe in his own successes. In contrast is the confident, selfsufficient individual who carries himself and the group along with him, whether successfully or not depending on his skill.

It may be that the rigidity-flexibility dimension of personality is the most important of all, at least as it relates to the ease or difficulty with which personality patterns may be modified. The rigid type might be expected to be something of a perfectionist in the administrative and executive roles; but if his natural ways of operating in the instructional roles are inadequate, he might have difficulty acquiring better ones and in changing his routine to adapt to various learning situations as they arise. On the other hand, the flexible person, if his skills are adequate, could presumably shift his role behavior and techniques as needed as easily as a dentist or surgeon selects his instruments for different purposes. •

EXPERIENCE is what keeps a person who makes the same mistake twice from admitting it the third time around.
—*Terry McCormick.*

We Can Recoup the Cost

Higher Education Is a Public Obligation

M. M. Chambers

In School and Society

EDUCATION, including college and university education, is a public responsibility. Higher education is a public obligation because society as a whole is its greatest beneficiary from any angle. If it is true, for example, that the college graduate stands to gain $100,000 or more lifetime earnings by reason of his college education, then in the course of his career he will amply repay the cost of his higher education just in the form of higher-bracket income taxes.

Of course, the duty to develop his own talents to the optimum level sets squarely on each individual; to say that education is a public function does not relieve him of that. From him must come the consuming motive; from society should come the provision of the opportunity.

Our governments do not set out to monopolize the function of education or to make it a monolithic public service. Instead they allow private effort to operate as a partner in the same enterprise. Governments (state and federal) not only permit private educational institutions to exist, but actively encourage and assist them by tax exemptions and numerous other means. Thus, we maintain a pluralistic system, with maximum freedom of choice for teachers, parents, students, and financial benefactors. That this makes for strength, richness, and viability is scarcely surprising.

Professor Chambers of the Carnegie Center for Study of Higher Education is Visiting Professor at the University of Michigan. Reported from School and Society, *LXXXVIII (Summer 1960), 283–85.*

The younger of the college-age people of 1970 are already enrolled in the second and third grades of the elementary schools. Their total numbers can be estimated with accuracy. There are few among the 50 states in which it has not been reliably estimated that the numbers of college students will be doubled by 1970. In several, such as California, Nevada, Arizona, and Florida, there is good reason to believe they will be tripled. Why must we provide two years of college for half of them, four years for a third of them, plus advanced graduate and professional education for unprecedented numbers? How can this be accomplished?

These questions will not be decided by educators or by politicians, or by bankers or by orthodox economists of the nineteenth-century vintage. The wants of the masses of men and women will decide. And among them no sentiment is more common than "I want my boy to have a better job than I have had," and "I want my girl to have a higher station in life than I have known."

Are these yearnings narrowly selfish, unreasonable, and unworthy of attention? Not necessarily. They contain a strong vein of self-renunciation, as witness the financial sacrifices made by millions of parents to keep their children in college.

Is it possible that every reasonably competent boy can expect to have a better job than his father did? Not literally in every case, but, by and large, in almost all cases it is not only possible but probable. The breathtaking advances in technology that follow one another cause an upgrading of all jobs, from highest to lowest. There is less and less need for the unskilled and more and more demand for the skilled, the technician, the semiprofessional, and on through the ranks to the topmost levels of design engineers and creative scientists in all fields.

A recently published paper by an assistant secretary of labor in the current conservative national administration looked forward into the 1960's. It contained the following statement:

"The emphasis on a college education is strong in modern business and government and will probably become stronger in the future, in view of the steadily increasing body of knowledge and skill required for many fields of work. To insure that college facilities and staff are expanded as required to meet personnel needs in different fields is a goal of highest priority from the viewpoint both of our national strength and of the life opportunities of millions of young men and women."

There is no question as to whether we will provide high-quality education for relatively small numbers of the best brains, or whether we shall provide appropriate types of education for larger and larger numbers of competent young persons who are not rated in the topmost intellectual strata. We shall do both. Long ago we have left behind us the concept of higher education as a narrow ladder for a stringently selected few, destined only for a handful of "prestige professions," chiefly law, medicine, and theology. Now there are literally scores—even hundreds—of occupations in which college training is either a prerequisite or a decided advantage.

VAST AND VARIED

Higher education in America is becoming a vast and varied system, with courses of study varying from a few weeks to eight or 10 years in duration and of types and levels suited to different intellectual qualities and aptitudes as well as diverse occupational choices. There are honorable exits at the end of two, four, and five years, and at intermediate points for those who wish to terminate.

The bulk of the job of higher education will fall on the public institutions—from junior colleges to graduate schools. About 60 percent of all college students are now in public institutions and 40 percent in private ones. The balance is shifting and will continue to shift. The proportion of all students in private colleges may decline from today's 40 percent to 20 percent. This will be no calamity. There will be greater opportunity for the private colleges to be more selective and to continue their role of making the national picture of higher education more diversified than it would be without them. The private colleges may reasonably expect to see their incomes from private gifts grow, their students become somewhat more numerous, and their physical facilities expand a little. But this will take place at a rather restrained pace.

Since the educated person is a better producer and a better consumer, the increase in productivity and in buying power adds more than enough to the national income to recoup the cost of education. Annual operating cost of higher education in 1959-60 was about $4 billion. The additional $4 billion a year that will be needed from public sources by 1970 could be supplied from the federal government alone if as little as 15 percent of current federal budgets were diverted to the states for that purpose. The 50 states themselves can more than double their appropriations for higher education by 1970. My studies show that they are now appropriating about $1,250,000,000 a year and that the increase during the last two years has been at the rate of about 20 percent. Merely maintaining this rate of increase for five bienniums would bring the annual total to more than twice what it is now.

Study of state revenue systems shows there is much room for improvement in the equitableness and productivity of state tax systems. Currently, higher education gets only an average of 5 to 6 percent of all state expenditures.

Eventually, the states and federal government will work together as partners, as they already do to some extent, in providing the necessary expansion of facilities for public higher education.

The national urgency of the purpose justifies a relative increase in the federal share, which will be forthcoming. We shall have more and better education for more people than ever before, and the high points of excellence will be higher than hitherto. The prospect ought not to be regarded with misgivings, but with confidence and enthusiasm. •

TOO often our institutions of higher learning and their chief executive officers can be characterized as "the bland leading the bland."—*Ewald B. Nyquist.*

Implications of the Permissiveness Doctrine in American Education

FRED N. KERLINGER

In Educational Theory

THE doctrine of permissiveness in education and its relation to democratic ideology have been tormenting problems to American educators.

Most thinkers apparently agree on a rather large measure of permissiveness. The idea seems basically to be that children, if they are to mature into democratic individuals and citizens, must not be too restricted in the pursuit of their own interests and needs, since such restrictiveness will somehow have the unfortunate consequence of producing undemocratic citizens. In short, without permissiveness we run the danger of creating authoritarian individuals and an authoritarian society. Certainly, the argument goes, we now have a generally authoritarian school system which is systematically warping millions of children into undesirable types, human beings who lack autonomy, maturity, and true democratic potentiality.

That there is much truth in the above argument few educators would deny. The underlying undemocratic and even authoritarian quality of many, perhaps most, American schools and classrooms seems evident, if we are to believe responsible critics. Yet it also seems that a good deal of the older restrictiveness and authoritarianism have been mitigated; improvement, while slow, has occurred.

Fred N. Kerlinger is Associate Professor of Education at New York University. Reported from Educational Theory, *X (April 1960), 120–27.*

The purpose of this article is to speculate on the possibility of a new authoritarianism springing from a relatively *extreme* and basic emphasis on permissiveness.

This article is not meant to be a critique of permissiveness in general. It is assumed that a moderate amount of permissiveness is good and that the older educational restrictiveness is bad. The permissiveness under discussion is the extreme, unilateral doctrine espoused by a number of educational writers. This unilateral doctrine seems to imply a wholesale sort of permissiveness running from the kindergarten through the graduate school, labeling as "bad" any sort of educational direction from the teacher. To lecture, so the doctrine says, is to impose one's will on students and is therefore bad, authoritarian, and to be eschewed by the democratic educator. Furthermore, the doctrine says, group processes in the classroom are good, democratic, and to be encouraged since they permit the greatest amount of individual expression through democratic interaction with others.

It is apparent from a study of educational literature that a great deal of permissivist doctrine is a reaction *against* the older authoritarianism and restrictiveness in education rather than a movement *for* permissiveness and democratic ideas. When it comes to the task of constructing a positive philosophy, permissivists find themselves in a difficult position, since they must "permit" anything but restrictiveness. What they have done is to borrow quite selectively from Dewey and Freud and manufactured a new metaphysics on the basis of these borrowings. The character of the movement is heavily moral and seems to derive its force from derogation of the older education, of subject matter, and of teachers. It seems that nothing in the older education was much good —except the pupils. Because it is a reaction, permissiveness has this mainly negative criticism of traditional education as its ideological foundation.

LEADS TO MANIPULATION

Perhaps the most serious implication of extreme permissiveness is that it leads to manipulation of the pupils by the teacher and manipulation of the teacher by the pupils. The very permissive teacher sets few or no limits for her pupils. Few norms of behavior and learning are supposed to be teacher determined. But a normless social situation is impossible. If the teacher does not supply the norms, the pupils will. Pupils may take the responsibility adequately; they may decide to teach the societal goals. Then, again, they may not. This cannot be left to chance, and any teacher knows it. Ideally, both teacher and pupils should set the norms, but the teacher's role must always be dominant. To say that this is a violation of democratic freedom is semantic nonsense. Freedom is always relative; it is bounded by norms and rules for behavior. As Dewey said, " . . . guidance given by the teacher to the exercise of the pupil's intelligence is an aid to freedom, not a restriction on it."

LEADS TO AUTOCRACY

This brings us to another point. Extreme permissiveness leads to autocratic rather than to democratic thinking and practice. The expression, "Do we *have* to do what we want to do today?" while a humorous exaggeration, contains the kernel of this problem.

No matter what position is taken on education's function, it still remains a fact that schools must teach a basic core of values, attitudes, skills, and facts. Variability will be great in a democracy, but the common norm must be there. The lines must be drawn somewhere, and it is the teacher acting for and as society who draws the lines. If the group does not point in the socially desirable direction, if educational activity strays too far from the societal goals, the teacher must so manipulate the situation as to redirect the activity. As Fromm has pointed out, we have to grow to independence through dependence, through selflove to love of others. Learning from teachers always has this symbiotic character. It is not undemocratic; it is natural and inevitable.

VIOLATION OF INTEGRITY

Furthermore, if a teacher espouses extreme permissiveness, the manipulation of pupils, if practiced systematically, is a violation of the integrity of both pupil and teacher. The teacher has been taught that the right way is the group way and that to impose her will on the children is wrong. But somewhere, sometime, she must draw lines beyond which children cannot go. Thus there is a conflict. The teacher has no choice; she must be democratic. Her only recourse is to use the permissive methods and still achieve societal objectives. And this often means doing things which are "coercive." She resorts to using "nice coercion." Children soon learn the rules of the game, become skilled at conforming to these nice demands. They also become skilled at manipulating the teacher. But in the process both teacher and pupil lose some integrity since life and the classroom are not always so "nice," and, in order to maintain the "nice" fiction, it is often necessary to practice mild but insidious deceptions on others and on oneself.

The relationship between permissiveness and conformity needs to be examined. When permissiveness is the *fundamental* guide to a teacher's thinking and behavior, pupils must pay the price of conformity. In an autocratic setup the social situation is clear to all concerned—role relationships and group norms are clearly understood. The pupils at least have something concrete to rebel against and, if necessary, to fight. But with a highly permissive teacher, there is nothing to rebel against or to fight; the pressures to conform are very strong.

A final word is in order. In a healthy, democratic classroom, the bounds and limits of behavior must be clearly known and understood by teacher and pupils. Pupils must understand authority. Authority is not a dirty word. It is an inevitable concomitant of the social process. In the classroom it inheres in the teacher and only seldom in the class group. To be permissive in an extreme fashion is to blur and confuse the outlines of the class social situation. This does not mean that a teacher should not be permissive. The difficulties arise when permissiveness is espoused (explicitly or implicitly) *as a basic doctrine* of educational practice—not something a teacher occasionally is. As a basic doctrine, it, like all other dogmatisms, leads not to democracy but to authoritarianism. •

An Appreciation of Large Numbers

Using Units of Work in Mathematics

RONALD C. WELCH

In Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University

A MATHEMATICS program may be enriched by a cooperatively planned unit of experiences related to a topic of both mathematical and social significance. Such units of work provide learning experiences which will help children achieve accepted goals. Teachers find that such units of work enable them to cut across subject-matter lines and to relate other curriculum areas to mathematics. Functional use of subject matter and skills is an important outcome of such an approach.

Units of work enable teachers to meet individual differences more satisfactorily. Since pupils have a variety of purposes, activities, interests, and abilities, it can be assumed that each child can make a contribution to the total group effort. Hundreds of activities, such as those related to problem solving, construction, field trips, and creativity, are possible sources for a unit of work in mathematics.

If the teacher is really interested in promoting valuable kinds of group and individual learning where the effective techniques of thinking, the perceptions of relationships, and the methods of locating, organizing, and evaluating information are given specific attention, the unit of work will become a part of the mathematics program.

Ronald C. Welch is a member of the faculty at Indiana University, Bloomington. Reported from Bulletin of the School of Education, *Indiana* University, *XXXVI (July 1960), "Promising Practices in Elementary School Mathematics," 42–44.*

The ongoing daily activities of children are the best sources for units of work. Such topics as the calendar, money, time, linear measurement, graphs, and maps are but a few examples of the many possible materials that may be used in broad units of work in mathematics.

Here is an example of a unit that Joseph Cailles found highly successful in grade 6 at the S. Ellen Jones School, New Albany, Indiana.

Designed originally to stimulate quantitative thinking and to develop frames of reference, this unit exploded with scintillating appeal on the imaginations of the children. The unit, which was planned to give the children a better understanding and a greater appreciation of large numbers, began very simply.

"How much is a billion dollars?" the pupils were asked. "If we pretended a 2½" x 6" piece of paper was a thousand dollar bill, how many would we need to make the billion? How big would the stack of bills be?" Their eyes just grew bigger and bigger.

The children were shown how to fold and rip a newspaper into halves, fourths, eighths, and sixteenths. The latter were measured to six-inch strips and cut. The resultant "bills" were then to be stacked into a pack of one hundred.

In five days' time, an agreed deadline, $100 million had been minted, and the original class of 43 boys and girls had been stretched to include over a hundred children from grades 3 to 6. "How much have we got?" became the question of the day.

ARITHMETIC JAMBOREE

It was during the planning of the presentation stage that the idea of an arithmetic jamboree evolved. Signs, tables, and graphs had to be designed. Problems had to be solved. Complex and strange as these were, the sixth-grade children attacked them with rare gusto.

How many pieces of paper did we actually have?

How much would each bill have to represent if we wanted to depict a billion with what we had?

How much would we have if each was a $10 bill? A $100 bill?

How high would the stack be if a full billion were measured?

How many feet is this? How many yards?

Would we have room in our gymnasium to show the area of a billion?

Are there any other ways of showing a concept of a very large number?

Can we compare decimals and fractions to see which would be easier to use in solving certain problems?

What about the idea that our sun's volume is one million times greater than our earth's? What is volume?

The above questions are just a sample of the many questions raised by the children, and herein lay a most startling discovery! The children had an opportunity to apply many of their arithmetic skills in these problem situations, and this illustrated to them beyond all words, "Why arithmetic?" And they loved it! •

ANNETTE, in the kindergarten, offered to count up to 109. She did so without error. When I asked her what came next, she said, "110, 111, 112." So I asked why she didn't continue to count up to 200. "Oh, I could, but I am much too little to do that now," she said. I inquired, "What's the difference how little you are if you can do it?" To which she replied, with much exasperation, "Yes, but I am not supposed to be able to."—Maryleen Stettner in *The Christian Science Monitor*.

They Do the Work at Home

Reader Aides for English Teachers

In Overview

ENGLISH teachers have reason to be grateful to officials at South Bay Union High School District (Redondo Beach, Calif.). Each of the district's three high schools employs two readers whose job it is to check themes and other written work. The readers are former teachers, currently on inactive status, who do the work at home.

A progress check made in June revealed nearly universal approval of the plan from teachers, pupils, readers, and parents. "This is working out even better than we had hoped," was one comment.

Principal H. C. Uhls of Aviation High School is probably most pleased with its success since he is credited with originating the plan at South Bay.

"Conant has emphasized what we've known for a long time," Uhls said, "that we need more effective instruction in English composition. But there is a ceiling on just how much one teacher can do in grading papers."

South Bay teachers assign students one theme a week and have assurance that about 40 percent of the work involved in grading the essays will be assumed by readers. Teachers submit the papers of two of their five classes to the readers with a note explaining the purpose of the assignment. After the reader checks for errors and returns the papers, the teacher reads them quickly for content and style.

Reported from Overview, *I (September 1960), 18.*

"Once the errors in spelling, punctuation, and grammar have been noted by the reader, the rest of the work goes quickly," one grateful teacher explained. "There aren't enough readers to process all our papers, but the help that two are able to give us has made a world of difference."

The papers are then returned to the students, forming the basis of a follow-up lesson. One reader summarizes errors by type so that the teacher can quickly determine where emphasis should be in the follow-up.

The readers employed to assist the English teachers at the Mira Costa High School are regular members of the school's English teaching staff; both are currently on a maternity leave.

Mira Costa's principal, Lloyd Waller, said that he believes a key factor in the plan's success is the high degree of understanding between reader and teacher.

The plan, officials say, is admittedly borrowed from the colleges and may be the first of many college methods to be adapted by the secondary schools. •

Diagnosis of Reading Problems in the Classroom

GEORGE D. SPACHE

In The Reading Teacher

WHAT is a severely retarded reader? How much retardation must be present to justify intensive remedial work? To avoid dissipating the few hours the average teacher has to devote to her retarded readers, a clear-cut definition of the problem is essential. We offer the following definition:

"An individual who is retarded in a number of reading skills by one year or more, if in the primary grades, or by two years or more if older, below that reading level necessary for full participation in the reading tasks of his age or socio-economic group may be considered a case of reading disability. It is assumed that he has had normal opportunities for schooling, and that he has continued to show this degree of retardation below his estimated capacity despite corrective efforts extending over a period of months."

This definition eliminates wasted motion in diagnosis and remediation of pupils who show trouble with a single skill, such as rate, who are functioning reasonably well in school and near their estimated capacity, or who have shown temporary difficulty which will probably respond to corrective classroom efforts.

Rigorous application of this definition results in selecting those pupils who have a real reading handicap.

Preliminary steps to reading diagnosis would include the administration of group reading and intelligence tests. The reading test should yield separate scores in the areas of rate, vocabulary, and comprehension so that the breadth of the reading difficulty may be determined. Supplementary tests of phonic and word-attack skills, such as the Doren and the Roswell-Chall tests, would sample other reading abilities.

The intelligence test should involve little or no reading. Suitable tests that can be administered by the teacher are the Chicago Non-Verbal, the Revised Beta Examination, portions of the SRA Primary Mental Abilities, and the non-language section of the California Mental Maturity.

George D. Spache is Head of the Reading Laboratory and Professor of Education at the University of Florida, Gainesville. Reported from The Reading Teacher, *XIV (September 1960), 14–18.*

Since the intelligence test results are only a crude guide to the reading capacities of the pupil, we prefer to estimate capacity by a formal or informal measure of listening or auditory comprehension. This, we believe, provides a better reflection of the pupil's language and socio-economic opportunities than the intelligence test.

These preliminary test scores would show the degree of retardation in comparison with capacity and the extent of retardation in various skills. This information, when considered in relation to the school history, would identify pupils in need of careful diagnosis.

Although physical factors are not a frequent major cause of reading disability, the possibility must be explored as a diagnostic step. In those cases in which the physical factors seem important, the teacher can secure advice from medical and optometric advisers regarding adjustment of the remedial program to the pupil's handicaps.

Most of the effective personality tests require intensive training for interpretation. Teachers without that training are well advised to depend on observational and interview techniques and their knowledge of child development and personality dynamics, as they learn more about the technical testing of personality. No single formal personality test, even in the hands of a psychologist, permits insights into the poor reader's selfconcept and his emotionalized attitudes toward reading.

Patterns of attitudes toward reading and, therefore, of reading development are established in children as early as the end of the first grade, as recent studies show. These attitudes often explain why a pupil feels he cannot succeed in reading, or they may actually determine how he reads. For example, the child may read haltingly because of anxiety, lack of self-confidence, or distaste for reading, while the older pupil may read slowly for these same reasons and also because of neurotic perfectionism, rigidity, or ingrained habit. Before we can attempt to correct the pupil's reading performance, we must try to understand how these reflect his ideas about himself and his reading.

Careful observation of the pupil's behavior, comments, and reactions to reading on numerous occasions are necessary. His spontaneous conversations and stories of his relationships with school and other teachers will provide other clues. The teacher will try to understand what part reading plays in the child's selfconcept, how he evaluates himself as a reader, and what reading success means to him.

WHAT IS NORMAL?

Reading is as much a sociological process as it is a psychological or personal one. Therefore, before we can expect to help the poor reader perform at what we consider a normal level, we must understand what is normal for his environmental setting. What part does reading play in the family's leisure time? What are the parental attitudes toward his reading?

We should certainly attempt to improve the status symbols of breadth of reading, verbal fluency, reading tastes and interests. But we must recognize that these must be realistically related to the probable uses of reading for this child now and in the future in his environmental setting.

An objective determination of the pupil's aptitude for learning by various instructional methods is often neglected in diagnosis of reading problems. Frequently, the decision to use the visual, phonic, or kinesthetic method is based simply on the teacher's preference. In fact, if we read the remedial literature, quite often there doesn't seem to have been any question of this point, for the pupil is given remedial training by the same visual method under which he has previously failed.

Some pupils do not show significantly greater learning aptitude for any one method, but many *do* exhibit a strong tendency in a series of simple trial lessons which any teacher can conduct. The Learning Methods Test, for example, can be used for individuals or small groups. The test consists of a series of four trial lessons in word recognition, each taught by a different method. By the use of comparable words in each lesson, and by the simple testing of actual learning at the end of the lesson and after one day, the appropriate method for each pupil may be discovered.

Since few commercial tests are available for assessment of abilities in the content fields or in study skills, information in these areas may be acquired by informal, teacher-constructed instruments. For reading in the content fields, a series of graded selections can be used to estimate silent reading comprehension levels and rate of reading. A parallel set of passages will function for the measurement of listening, or auditory, comprehension in this same area. Auditory comprehension level will reveal the pupil's potential for reading in this field, or the possibility of improvement from remedial training. Knowledge of the technical vocabulary of a content field may be sampled by a test constructed using the glossary of the text.

A few teachers will wish to explore study skills, particularly with older pupils. They may wish to evaluate the pupil's abilities in locating information, as in library skills, dictionary use, map reading, and the reading of tables and charts. Evaluation of skill in organizing information as in outlining, summarizing, and note-taking may also seem desirable. Because of their informality and relationship to the pupil's work, these evaluations are meaningful and realistic to the pupil. The results lend themselves to pointed teacher-pupil discussion, and, thus, to more complete understanding of the pupil's reading and study practices. •

New Purposes for Comparative Education

International Education and Teacher Training

CLAUDE EGGERTSEN

In the University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin

SCHOOL reforms and international crises have often occurred together in modern nations. The Prussians effected school reforms after they were defeated by Napoleon. The Danes created the Folk High School following their defeat by Bismarck. Americans helped the Filipinos establish a national school system after their independence had been won from Spain. "New schools for new men" became a primary aim of the Russians after 1918. And educational changes were made in England during the war years of 1918 and 1944.

World War I was the first real threat to American security in a century. At its conclusion, we saw a rapid extension and expansion of high-school education, when it became our aim to enrol virtually every adolescent in high school. In the years since World War II, an even more crucial challenge to our security, Americans seem to have decided to send half their young people to college.

The continuing threat of the cold war, especially since Sputnik, has been a chief cause of a national debate over purposes and practices in our schools. In the crisis-ridden world of the fifties, in a period of ever-increasing threat to our security, we have committed ourselves to the use of education as a chief weapon against the growth of totalitarianism. We have come to believe that educational provisions are indispensable in plans to create decent standards of living for the underdeveloped peoples who must be won to the support of the free world.

Events of the first half of 1960 have made us realize that world security is not to be gained through reliance on weapons, conventional or ultimate. We have found ourselves to be virtually helpless against the attacks of what seem to be relatively small proportions of the populations in Korea, Turkey, and Japan.

No course remains open but persuasion based on a sincere desire unselfishly to help create a better life for the hundreds of millions who live in Asia, Africa, and South America. "Faith and good works"

Claude Eggertsen is Professor of Education at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Reported from The University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin, *XXXI (May 1960), 113–16.*

has become the key to survival. American educational reform in terms of the current crisis means acceptance of a role as educator to the world. In this role, an educational philosophy conceived only in relation to domestic goals will prove inadequate if we are to prove helpful rather than "ugly" or even "quiet" Americans abroad.

The chief reliance for the achievement of new goals must be placed on professional education. Although teachers may gain a new point of view by exposure to the news media and instruction in the social sciences, and educational psychologists, administrators, and curriculum specialists will shoulder part of the burden, full responsibility will rest on educational sociologists, philosophers, and historians.

These representatives of the social-foundations fields have long been aware of their responsibilities in international education and they have sponsored courses in comparative education for over half a century. The courses have been developed, however, for their contributions to an understanding of American education. Later, in recommending changes in education to our former foes—Italians, Germans, Austrians, and Japanese, we found it necessary to consider far more than the superficial aspects of the system to be modified. It was clear that the deeper our understanding of the subtle relationships between the school and the social order, the greater our chance to add to our security through the use of education as a device to substitute democracy for totalitarian practices.

NEED NEW MATERIALS

The new purposes which now motivate the study of comparative education require new materials. Useful conclusions cannot be based on materials brought together 50, 25, or even 10 years ago. We are now forced to consider how political beliefs, economic changes, and changing social customs and attitudes affect a nation's schools. The new student of comparative education must survey, map, interview, and sample, as well as document.

He must beware of that dream of the development of a widely applicable formula in measuring the effectiveness of different systems, even though it be ardently desired by business and government agencies, and by certain foundations. He must resist the use of superficial comparisons across cultures, but he should try to create research designs so that valid and limited comparisons can be made.

These are some of the considerations which have inspired changes in the comparative education program in the University of Michigan School of Education since World War II. To a course on contemporary education in western Europe have been added courses concerned with school and society in Latin America, Japan, East and Southeast Asia, the British Commonwealth, and Russia. It is planned to develop new offerings for the Middle East, Africa, and China, and a course about the educational programs of such agencies as our International Cooperation Administration, Unesco, and UN.

Since vital teacher education and research programs alike depend on field study and exchange of students and teachers, study tours have regularly been conducted since 1946 to Canada, Mexico, and England. Plans are afoot for tours to England in 1961 and Japan in 1962. In the past 10 years, faculty members and lecturers have been recruited from England, Holland, Canada, Iraq, Iran, Nigeria, West Germany, Sweden, Denmark, Japan, and India. Doctoral dissertations and monographs have been prepared on education in India, Japan, Greece, Iraq, Sierra Leone, Egypt, Mexico, Canada, England, the Philippines, and Russia.

Every phase of the program in comparative education at Michigan has been aided by fellowship awards under Title IV of the National Defense Education Act, four for the study of education in Europe and two for Asia. These carefully selected and highly motivated fellows have formed the core of a group of advanced students for which the department originates course offerings, conducts seminars and field trips, holds special conferences, employs consultants and lecturers, secures exchange appointments with foreign universities, publishes special materials, and formulates consistent research programs. The $2,500 which the University receives for each fellow has been indispensable in the conduct of many of these activities.

If the nature of the present crisis makes us turn from a preoccupation with schools at home, and a reliance on weapons abroad, toward the use of education as a principal part of an effort to win international cooperation, the loss of prestige we may have suffered at the hands of Russia and Cuba will be but a small price. Our national genius for the creation of free schools for the masses, guided by a knowledge gained from comparative education, may well prove to be the decisive weapon.

COLLEGE students who live on campus but study completely independently—without teachers and classmates—achieve more knowledge than those taught by conventional classroom methods or those meeting regularly in small groups without instructors, a recent University of Michigan experiment shows. The study, supported by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, also indicated, however, that a group of teachers receiving in-service training performed very poorly under conditions of independent study.

★ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

The Candidates Agree, Differently.—The President-elect will be a man in favor of federal aid to education, if campaign promises mean anything.

As this issue goes to press, the election is about to be held. But whichever of the two candidates is elected, he has not only pledged to support federal-aid legislation, but has declared himself prepared to spend more federal money for education than the outgoing Chief Executive.

Education was a major topic during the first of the publicized television debates between Candidates Kennedy and Nixon. On the question of federal aid, Mr. Nixon established himself as a school-construction man. He said that federal funds should be available in such a manner as to leave local school boards free to spend local and state funds to jack up teacher salaries "which have been too low and continue to be too low." The Vice-President admitted that in his capacity as president of the Senate he broke a tie-vote last February on an amendment which would have provided federal funds to the states for construction or salaries. Mr. Nixon is against federal funds for salaries because "this would inevitably lead to federal control of what is being taught," he believes.

In his campaign speeches, Mr. Kennedy stressed that he believes in giving the states the choice of spending federal allocations for teacher salaries *or* school construction. He said that by giving the money to the states there would be adequate safeguards—a buffer between the federal government and the teachers. Mr. Kennedy stressed the increasing strain on the local property tax that is found in most communities.

Should federal funds also go to parochial schools? No, says Senator Kennedy, in a newspaper interview. Mr. Nixon evaded the answer to that particular question.

A New Phrase.—From the White House comes a phrase new to educational circles in Washington. It is "United Nations aid for education."

The phrase was first used in a speech by President Eisenhower before the UN General Assembly on September 22. It has since gained some currency, as Washington educators marvel at its origin. Although President Eisenhower has done little during his eight years to promote United States aid for United States education, a twist of fate has made Mr. Eisenhower the author of a phrase envisioning even broader support for education than federal aid for education.

It is true that Mr. Eisenhower has restricted his UN aid for education to Africa only. In his General Assembly address, he said:

". . . I propose an all-out United Nations effort to help African countries launch such educational activities as they may wish to undertake.

"It is not enough that loudspeakers in the public square exhort people to freedom. It is also essential that the people should be furnished with the mental tools to preserve and develop their freedom."

Mr. Eisenhower then went on to say that the United States is ready to contribute to an expanded program of educational assistance to Africa by the family of United Nations organizations, carried out as the General-Secretary may deem appropriate, and according to the ideas of the African nations themselves.

"One of the purposes of this assistance . . .," Mr. Eisenhower said, "might be to establish, staff, and maintain . . . institutes for health education, for vocational training, for public administration and statistics, and perhaps for other purposes.

"Each institute would be appropriately located and specifically dedicated to training the young men and women of that vast region, who are now called on to assume the incredibly complex and important responsibilities inherent in an explosive emergence into nationhood.

"If the African states should wish to send large numbers of their citizens for training abroad under this program, my country would be glad to set up a special commission to cooperate with the United Nations in aranging to accommodate many more of these students in our institutions of learning."

And Lo! NEA's Name Leads All the Rest.—Under the Lobbying Act of 1946, anyone who receives money to influence "the passage or defeat of any legislation by the Congress of the United States" must report to the Clerk of the House and the Secretary of the Senate all such receipts and expenditures.

This fall, the National Education Association made news when it reported expenditures of $78,000 during the first six months of 1960. This put NEA at the top of the list—ahead of the AFL-CIO, the Teamsters, and the American Farm Bureau. Main NEA effort, of course, was to secure enactment of federal aid to education. The bill came close; both houses passed education measures but they disagreed until the final adjournment on the type of aid, and success was not achieved.

Ironically, NEA is probably not the biggest-spending lobby in Washington; it is merely the one which reports the greatest expenditure. Some organizations failed to turn in their lobbying expense reports by the mid-summer deadline; others don't report at all—on the grounds that their activities are not lobbying but rather "informational." A national organization of manufacturers, for example, believes that it need not register as a lobby. Other organizations narrowly define their direct legislative activities and do not tell the Congress what it costs to undertake indirect lobbying.

As a matter of policy, NEA "endeavors to report all expenditures which might be construed as lobbying." In recent years these came to 1½ percent of the total annual NEA budget.

Desegregation Report.—Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare Arthur Flemming gave a status report on desegregation in the schools during a news conference this fall. He found cause for some hope and much concern.

He blasted officials of Virginia's Prince Edward County because they padlocked 21 public schools a year ago to avoid compliance with a federal court order to desegregate. Some 1500 white pupils will continue to receive education through private schools provided by the Prince Edward School Foundation. But of 1700 Negro children of school age, 300 have had to go to schools outside the county, while 1400 face another year with no opportunity available to them to attend school.

Said Dr. Flemming: "This situation is indefensible. It is contrary to American beliefs and principles."

The Secretary found some progress in other states, with 16 school districts in seven states having made new breaks in the color barrier. He hoped that many more schools would desegregate without waiting for court orders. He found no basis for complacency.

Finally, he expressed regret that the last session of Congress refused to put his Department "in a position where it could give the type of assistance to local school districts that, in my judgment, would help to accelerate progress toward a goal that must be reached if our nation is to bring practice into line with our stated beliefs."

What's Ahead?—In recent years, the professional staff of the National Education Association has taken two days a year for a kind of mental muscle-stretching exercise. This fall, the NEA's expanded staff meeting sought to examine what's ahead for education in the coming decade.

One of the guest speakers at this meeting was Paul Woodring, educational adviser to the Ford Foundation and newly named editor of the monthly education supplement of the *Saturday Review*. Here is what he told the NEA staff:

- Educational improvement comes not steadily, but in waves. There are periods of integration as well as stagnation. Reforms do not go on continuously.
- About 1957 or 1958, a new reform got under way with focus on the new technology, with possible application to the schools. The arrival of Sputnik merely highlighted this impact.
- Professional organizations should lead the way toward reform, rather than resist or fight it.
- Today there is a great deal of administrative leadership, but there

is a vacuum in educational leadership. There is no Dewey, no Pestalozzi, no Froebel.

- Criticism is useful because vigorous criticism usually precedes reform. Critics are not necessarily enemies of the public schools, just as a music critic is not the enemy of music. It is the weakness of the organized profession that it is unwilling to listen to criticism, to read carefully the charges made against current practices.
- There is need for a new look, for more imagination. Is the present school organization pattern, for example, best—eight years of elementary, followed by four years of high school, and four more years of college? Should there be not merely a change to a 6-3-3-4 pattern, but basic change like an ungraded primary school?

Should we continue to hold to the assumption that youngsters must enter the first grade at age six?

What about television? The new technology, in another form, came centuries ago with the invention of printing. Teachers then also feared technological displacement.

Is the profession off on the wrong track when it assumes responsibility for raising money for education? Should this task be left to the legislators while the profession devotes itself to teaching?

- There may be a need for an endowed chair of educational criticism, a full professor to give all his time to challenging the present climate and organization of our schools. "But give him tenure!" Dr. Woodring added.

Language Study Survey.—The Modern Language Association, in a recent survey for the U. S. Office of Education, found that 16.15 percent of all public high-school students were learning at least one modern foreign language in 1958-1959. Ten years ago the corresponding figure was only 13.7 percent.

At present, 50.4 percent of all public high schools offer one or more current foreign languages. With the impact of the National Defense Education Act, said U. S. Commissioner of Education Lawrence Derthick, "preliminary information for 1959-1960 indicates that even more students are becoming interested." He termed the trend "gratifying."

Spanish was the most popular modern foreign language in 1958, followed by French, German, and Italian. Regular classes in Russian were reported in 25 states a year earlier.

Only a very small impact was reported for various other modern languages, whose collective enrolment came to less than 6,000. These are Chinese, Czech, Modern Greek, Hawaiian, Hebrew, Norwegian, Polish, Portuguese, and Swedish.

The MLA survey dealt only with grades 9-12, but there is evidence that there is a trend toward more language offerings in grade 7 and 8 also. •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Chattanooga, Tenn.: **Benjamin E. Carmichael**, formerly associate professor of education, George Peabody College for Teachers, is now superintendent.

Waterbury, Conn.: **Michael F. Wallace**, formerly assistant superintendent, is successor to **John G. Gilmartin**, retired.

West Orange, N.J.: **Jessie I. Taylor** has been named successor to **Rexford S. Souder**, now at Niskayuna, N.Y.

Boston, Mass.: **Frederick J. Gillis**, formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded **Dennis C. Haley**, retired.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo: **James W. Miller**, secretary of the board of trustees of Michigan State University, has been named successor to **Paul V. Sangren**, retired.

George Washington University, Washington, D.C.: **Thomas H. Carroll**, vice-president of The Ford Foundation, has been appointed president, effective February 1961.

Florida State University, Tallahassee: **Gordon Blackwell**, formerly chancellor of Woman's College, Greensboro, N.C., is the new president.

State Teachers College, Clarion, Pa.: **James Gemmell**, formerly professor of education, Pennsylvania State University, has been named president.

Pace College, New York City: **Edward J. Mortola**, formerly vice-president, has succeeded **Robert S. Pace**, retired.

University of California, Los Angeles: **Franklin D. Murphy** has been appointed chancellor.

State Teachers College, West Chester, Pa.: **T. Noel Stern** has succeeded the late **Charles S. Swope.**

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

Nebraska State Teachers College, Wayne: **Allen P. Burkhardt**, formerly president of Norfolk Junior College, Neb., is now professor of education.

University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa: **Robert L. Hopper**, formerly head of the department of administrative educational services, Michigan State University, is now dean of the college of education.

New York University, New York City: **John S. Benben**, formerly head of the department of education, Northern Illinois University, De Kalb, is now professor of educational administration in the school of education.

Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.: **John W. M. Whiting** has been named Charles Bigelow Professor of Education; **John B. Carroll** has been appointed Roy E. Larsen Professor of Education; and **Edwin E. Moise**, has succeeded **Robert Ulich**, retired, as James Bryant Conant Professor of Education.

Long Island University, Brooklyn, N.Y.: **Jacob I. Harstein** has been named dean of the new school of education.

Teachers College, Columbia University, N.Y.: **Alice M. Miel** has been appointed head of the department of curriculum and teaching, succeeding **Gordon N. Mackenzie.**

Central Missouri State College, Warrensburg: **Tom D. Edmunds**, formerly principal, Plattsburg High School, Mo., is now assistant professor of education.

Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville: **P. O. Selby** has retired as dean of instruction. A new associate professor in elementary education is **Irene Fitzgerald**, formerly instructor at the University of Missouri.

West Virginia University, Morgantown: **Earl L. Boggs**, dean of Longwood College, Farmville, Va., has been named dean of the college of education, succeeding **E. K. Feaster**, now president of Fairmont State College.

Pennsylvania State University, University Park: **A. Madison Brewer,** formerly chairman of the department of elementary education, University of Nebraska, has succeeded **Charles M. Long,** resigned, as head of the department of elementary education.

Michigan State University, East Lansing: **Donald Leu,** formerly deputy superintendent, Michigan Department of Public Instruction, has returned as a member of the college of education staff. Other new members include: **Burt Thorn,** formerly of Saginaw; **Richard Featherstone,** formerly of Birmingham; and **Gladys Dillon,** formerly of Flint.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Herschel Nisonger has retired as director of the Bureau of Educational Research and Service, Ohio State University, Columbus.

Dean M. Schweickhard, Minnesota state commissioner of education, has announced his retirement, effective July 1961.

L. Arthur Minnich, formerly assistant staff secretary of the White House Office, has been named executive secretary of the U.S. National Commission for Unesco, succeeding **Abram E. Manell.**

John M. Hickey, who resigned last spring as superintendent at Erie, Pa., has left for Rome to study for the Catholic priesthood.

Ambrose Caliver, chief, Adult Education Section, U.S. Office of Education, has been named president-elect of the Adult Education Association.

RECENT DEATHS:

Robert L. Kincaid, president emeritus, Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate, Tenn., at the age of 67.

Edward C. Elliott, president emeritus, Purdue University, at the age of 85.

Dorothy I. Mulgrave, professor of education, New York University, at the age of 56.

Thomas Woody, professor of education, University of Pennsylvania, at the age of 62.

William S. Gray, professor emeritus of education and director of research in reading, University of Chicago, at the age of 75. He was one of the founders and first president of the International Reading Association.

Emma Scott, editor of the *Journal of Arkansas Education* since 1948.

No Violence

THIS year, for the first time since the 1954 school desegregation decision by the U.S. Supreme Court, the South's public schools opened without violence.

Southern School News reported that there were no racial incidents during the first month of the new session in the 768 desegregated school districts. Seventeen of the districts admitted Negroes to formerly all-white classes for the first time.

Houston, Tex., formerly the nation's largest segregated school system, admitted 11 Negroes to predominantly white classes under a plan ordered by federal courts. The change left Dallas as the nation's largest dual school system.

Education Week

WITH the theme of "Strengthen Schools for the 60's," American Education Week, Nov. 6-12, is expected to make parents and community leaders even more "education conscious" this year than in the past observances. Special television and radio programs have been planned for the week, schools are planning special observances, and newspapers are expected to observe the event. Last year approximately 30 million visitors were attracted to schools during the week.

Topics for the week's observance this year will be: Sunday—"Serious Students, Stronger Schools"; Monday—"Interested Parents, Stronger Schools"; Tuesday—"Able Board Members, Stronger Schools"; Wednesday—"Quality Teachers, Stronger Schools"; Thursday – "Ample Funds, Stronger Schools"; Friday—"Challenging Curriculums, Stronger Schools"; and Saturday—"Lifelong Learners, Stronger Schools."

Improving Biology

THREE new versions of secondary-school courses on biology are being tested nationally this year with 14,000 students in 107 schools. The new materials were produced by a staff of 60 teachers and research biologists at a summer writing conference held at the University of Colorado under the auspices of the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study. This Study was established in 1959 by the education committee of the American Institute of Biological Sciences.

The testing program now underway is the first step in a program to improve biology education in particular, and the understanding of science in general, in the elementary schools, high schools, and colleges.

Team-Teaching Pay

THE 21 leaders of special team-teaching projects at five elementary schools in Pittsburgh are now receiving 10 percent more pay this fall. Superintendent Calvin E. Gross explains that the additional pay is not merit pay. "Merit salary is extra pay for the same job presumably done better," he said. He declared that the 21 teachers are getting higher salaries because of additional responsibilities: "general supervision over the other six team members."

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Nov. 6-7, Association of Urban Universities, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Nov. 6-12, American Education Week.

Nov. 7-10, National Institutional Teacher Placement Association, St. Louis, Mo.

Nov. 15-19, Council of Chief State School Officers, Sante Fe, N.M.

Nov. 23-26, National Council for the Social Studies, Boston, Mass.

Nov. 24-26, National Council of Geographic Education, Cincinnati, Ohio.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Dec. 5-9, American Vocational Association, Los Angeles, Calif.

Jan. 9-12, White House Conference on Aging, Washington, D.C.

Feb. 11-15, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Detroit, Mich.

Feb. 22-25, American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 25-28, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, San Francisco, Calif.

Mar. 5-8, Association for Higher Education, Chicago, Ill.

New Educational Materials

How to Tell the School Story. Leslie W. Kindred, *et al.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 500. $9.00.

The title for this book is well chosen. It is a highly readable handbook covering all aspects of a public-relations program.

Dr. Kindred, who is a professor of educational administration at Temple University, prepared three chapters and employed eleven associates who contributed individual chapters in areas of their special interest. The contributing authors all are experienced in school public-relations programs.

The importance of creating good will and developing better understanding of the instructional program is discussed, and much of the technical skill and methods necessary to succeed with that aim is included.

The Community Junior College. James W. Thornton, Jr. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 300. $5.95.

This is a textbook for those with an interest in teaching and administration at the junior-college level.

In the preface the author calls attention to the growth of this educational field and the opportunities it presents: "It is entirely possible that another decade will see as many as 800 colleges (junior), with 2,000,000 students, and at least 40,000 full-time equivalent instructors. Adequate preparation of these instructors is one of the most pressing of our many educational needs."

The book not only covers the backgrounds of the community junior-college movement, it also devotes sections to the organization and operation of the junior college and to issues and opportunities in the field.

The Nation's Children. Vol. 1: The Family and Social Change. Vol. 2: Development and Education. Vol. 3: Problems and Prospects. Edited by Eli Ginzberg. New York: Columbia University Press, 1960. Pp. xvii + 252, xvi + 242, and xvi + 242. $13.50 for the set; $4.50 per volume.

This three-volume collection of essays, written by top men in such fields as education, religion, medicine, psychology, business, social work, economics, and anthropology, was prepared for the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth. Taken as a whole, the three volumes present a mirror of society in the U.S. today, with primary emphasis on children.

The first volume, **The Family and Social Change,** describes important recent changes that affect American children. The second volume, **Development and Education,** analyzes the gap between our aspirations for our children and our actual accomplishments in their behalf. The last volume, **Problems and Prospects,** presents the most critical problems facing youth today and attempts to see what the future holds.

Psychology in Teaching and Learning. William C. Trow. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1960, Pp. xv + 488. $5.75.

This is a text for a first course in educational psychology by William Clark Trow, University of Michigan professor of education and psychology.

Major theories of educational psychology are related to daily teaching activities to provide essential insights into educational problems. The chapters form a series of situations, each accompanied by the psychological theories and facts needed to understand and handle them.

Two categories of bibliographical material are supplied at the end of each chapter: a list of articles appearing in current books of readings, and a list of references to books and journals. A number of drawings and photographs supplement the text.

A student's manual and an instructor's handbook also are available.

Curriculum Planning through In-Service Programs. Harold Spears. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiii + 350. $4.95.

Harold Spears in this book reports on approximately 25 typical programs he has observed throughout the country, demonstrating how the in-service program operates and what it accomplishes in improving the quality of classroom instruction.

The author points out that in-service training has to a great extent merged with and enlarged on curriculum planning. The latter, he says, seeks only to upgrade the instructional program proper, while in-service plans go beyond that by giving the teacher an opportunity to "grow" on the job.

In later chapters, the author takes up such related matters as teacher-parent conferences and the problem of orienting new teachers who are entering on-the-job training. He concludes with a discussion of the practical limitations of the in-service movement.

A feature of the book is a series of cartoons drawn by the author himself to lend impact to important ideas.

JUST OFF THE PRESS — SEND FOR THE NEW

Free McKnight's Catalog

TYPICAL GUIDANCE BOOKS

- Good Manners: The Magic Key
- As Others Like You And Tests On Social Usage
- College Know-How
- Guidance In Elementary Schools
- Selecting An Occupation
- Understanding Ourselves
- Growing Up
- Exploring Occupations
- Success In The World Of Work
- The Bobby G
- You And Your Future
- You And Your Work Ways

FILL IN COUPON TO RECEIVE CATALOG. DESCRIBES OVER 23 NTERESTING, PRACTICAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE BOOKS.

McKnight & McKnight Publishing Co.
Dept. 826, Bloomington, Illinois

Name ....
Address ....
City ....State ....

Education for Effective Thinking. William H. Burton, Roland B. Kimball, and Richard L. Wing. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1960. Pp. xi + 508. $6.00.

This book is an examination of the thinking process and its relationship to learning. It is detailed without being extremely technical.

The book is organized in three sections: "Reflective Thinking: Definition, Description, and Attitudes Necessary"; "The Thinking Process"; and "The Teaching Process and Learning to Think."

Examples of practical applications of the technical content of the text aid in keeping the discussion lively. The chapter, Errors and Fallacies in Thinking, especially contains many interesting references to familiar events in history.

Individual chapters in Part Three are devoted to relating the thinking process to specific subjects: language arts, social studies, science, mathematics, etc.

There is an extensive bibliography, and pertinent exercises and relevant readings are included after each chapter.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED: ELEMENTARY

Happy Times with Sounds. Phonics Workbooks 1, 2, and 3. Lola Merle Thompson. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. 94, 82, and 74. $1.00 each. Teachers' handbook for books 1-3. $.72.

The Tall Grass Zoo. Winifred and Cecil Lubell. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1960. Pp. 58. $2.75. Information about small animals to be found in tall grass.

A Trip to Paris. Terry Shannon. Chicago: Childrens Press, Inc., 1960. Pp. 32. $2.50. For beginning French pupils, grades 3-5.

Science—Grades K-6; 4. Sound and Light in Communication. Curriculum bulletin of New York City Board of Education. Pp. 59. Available from Publications Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N.Y. $.50.

Happy Times with Numbers. Books 1 and 2. Evelyn Fershing. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. 126 each. $.96 each.

The Student Teacher in the Elementary School. (Second Edition.) John U. Michaelis and Enoch Dumas. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiv + 388. $6.00.

Elementary School Curriculum from Theory to Practice. Marshall C. Jameson and William Vernon Hicks. New York: American Book Company, 1960. Pp. x + 415. $6.00.

Curriculum in the Modern Elementary School. (Second Edition.) Robert Beck, Walter Cook, and Nolan Kearney. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 513. $7.25.

About All of Us. Helen Schacter, *et al.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1960. Pp. 288. $2.20. Book Six in the Basic Health and Safety Program Series. A 192-page guidebook is included in the teacher's edition.

Word Analysis Practice. Donald D. Durrell, *et al.* Tarrytown-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Company. A series of 6″ x 9″ cards, containing words to be analyzed and read by intermediate pupils. Three sets for three levels. $2.40 for each 30-card set. Includes teacher's manual.

SECONDARY

Good Digging; The Story of Archaeology. Dorothy and Joseph Samachson. New York: Rand McNally & Company, 1960. Pp. 224. $3.50.

Shots Without Guns; The Story of Vaccination. Sarah R. Riedman. New York: Rand McNally & Company, 1960. Pp. 232. $3.50.

The Unified Curriculum; A Case Study, Grades 7-8. Joseph S. Butterweck and Katherine H. Spessard. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. 60. $1.00.

Your Home and You. Carlotta C. Greer and Ellen P. Gibbs. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Pp. vii + 504. $4.88.

Five Steps to Reading Success in Science, Social Studies, and Mathematics. (Revised Edition.) New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, Institute of Administrative Research, 1960. Pp. 39. $1.00. Discounts in quantity.

Shorthand for High Schools; Course of Study and Syllabus. Curriculum Bulletin No. 8, 1959-60, New York City Board of Education. Available from Publications Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N. Y. $.75.

Administration of Secondary Schools. Rudyard K. Bent and Lloyd E. McCann. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. xv + 356. $6.50.

Modern Biology. Truman J. Moon, James H. Otto, and Albert Towle. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 758. $5.48.

COLLEGE

A Sociological Approach to Education. (Third Edition.) Lloyd Allen Cook and Elaine Forsyth Cook. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 371. $6.75.

Educational Supervision in Principle and Practice. Hanne J. Hicks. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1960. Pp. vii + 434. $6.25.

Operation I.Q.; How to Get into College and Stay There. E. E. Roberts. Buffalo, N. Y.: Henry Stewart, Inc., 1960. Pp. 136. $2.00.

GUIDANCE

Employment Outlook for Secretaries, Stenographers, and Typists; and Employment Outlook for Registered Professional Nurses, Practical Nurses. U.S. Department of Labor, 1960. Pp. 5 and 9. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. $.10 each.

Your Future in Poultry Farming. John W. Goodman and David C. Tudor. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. 412. $5.25.

Mathematics and Your Career. (Revised.) 1960. Pp. 9. Available from U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

GENERAL

Schools and the Law. E. Edmund Reutter, Jr. New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1960. Pp. 96. $2.00, cloth; $1.00, paperbound.

Reading in Your School. J. Roy Newton. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. x + 297. $5.95.

Current Administrative Problems: Athletics, Health Education, Physical Education, Recreation. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1960. Pp. vi + 197. $3.00.

Rankings of the States, 1960. Washington, D.C.: Research Division, NEA, 1960. Pp. 43. $.75.

Foundations and Principles of Physical Education. Natalie Marie Shepard. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1960. Pp. ix + 352. $5.00.

A Practical Guide to Teaching for Beginning Teachers and Per Diem Substitutes. Norman Remson. Darien, Conn.: The Educational Publishing Corp., 1960. Pp. 223. $2.95.

Music in Everyday Living and Learning; Ways of Integrating Music with Other Experiences. Roberta McLaughlin. Washington, D.C.: Music Educators National Conference, NEA, 1960. Pp. ix + 53. $1.00.

The Print; An Original Art Form for All. Adele Lewis. New York: Adele Lewis Studio, 1960. Pp. 32. $2.00.

The Administration of Safety in the New York City Schools; A Manual. New York: New York Board of

Education Publications Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N.Y. $1.00.

Saturday Science. Edited by Andrew Bluemle. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. 333. $5.95. Written by scientists of the Westinghouse Research Laboratories.

Spanish Stories. Edited by Angel Flores. **French Stories.** Edited by Wallace Fowlie. New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 339 and ix + 333. $.75 each. New dual-language paperbacks of short stories in Spanish-English and French-English.

AUDIO-VISUALS

Today's Need in Arithmetic: A Mathematical Approach. A 13½ minute, 16mm, sound movie in color on how children are being prepared for the stepped-up mathematics courses in high schools. Available from Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, on free-loan basis.

Story of Oil Kit. Includes display box, geological specimens, samples of oil, 16-page resource unit on petroleum, and 108-page activity book containing 85 experiments. Information available from Models of Industry, Inc., 2100 Fifth St., Berkeley 10, Calif. $8.95.

Elementary Science Kit. Includes 47 different types of materials including a bulletin on "Teaching Science," and a manual "Science Experiments for Grade Schools." Available from Arthur S. LaPine and Company, 6001 S. Knox Ave., Chicago 29, Ill. $39.95.

Pioneer Spinning and Weaving. A 16mm, 10-minute movie. Available from Indiana University Audio-Visua Center, Bloomington, for rent or purchase. Color or black and white.

Understanding Electricity. A series of seven filmstrips for later elementary or junior-high classes. Available from The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit 11, Mich. $36.50 for set, $5.75 each filmstrip.

READER INFORMATION SERVICE

Send in this coupon to get additional information easily and quickly from the advertisers in this issue and about the materials listed in "New Educational Materials."

☐ **McKnight & McKnight Guidance Catalog**

☐ **Viewlex Projectors**

☐ **Prakken Publications**

I would also like more information on the following books and other materials listed in this issue:

....

....

Name .... **Position** ....

Address N-60

THE EDUCATION DIGEST STAFF

LAWRENCE W. PRAKKEN, Editor and Publisher
JEROME C. PATTERSON, Managing Editor
WARREN R. GOOD, Associate Editor
OLIVER E. HANNINEN, Assistant Editor
BURLEY L. HENDRICKS, Assistant Editor
BARBARA N. LEAKE, Circulation Manager

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

THOMAS D. BAILEY, Superintendent, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida
NATT B. BURBANK, Superintendent of Schools, Boulder, Colorado
JOHN S. CARTWRIGHT, Superintendent of Schools, Allentown, Pennsylvania
ARTHUR F. COREY, Executive Secretary, California Teachers Association, Burlingame
LYMAN V. GINGER, Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington
PHILIP J. HICKEY, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis, Missouri
HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, Chief, Elementary Schools Section, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
L. S. MICHAEL, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois
FRED RAUBINGER, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey
JAMES E. RUSSELL, Secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.
GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Principal, The Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut
RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington
DONALD E. TOPE, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene
HENRY I. WILLETT, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

MEMBER OF

EDUCATIONAL
PRESS
ASSOCIATION
OF
AMERICA

Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index.* Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., Lexington 2-0020. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 1025 Harlem Ave., Glenview, Ill., PArk 4-0800. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 711 S. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

JAN 1961

BOOKS, BOOKLETS, AND CHARTS

For Your Industrial-Education Department

Modern School Shop Planning

The only book on the market that completely covers the planning problems of school shops—equipment lists, safety factors, principles of purchasing, standards, suggested shop layouts, etc.

184 Pages **$3.85**

Machinists' Ready Reference

Compiled by C. Weingartner. Contains 100 of the most used tables and charts. Pocket-sized. The handiest, neatest machinists' handbook yet devised. Well indexed. **$1.50**

Diamond Dust

By Tom Diamond. A collection of tongue-in-cheek articles emphasizing practical pedagogical points. Light reading-with-a-purpose. 112 pages. **$2.00**

Campbell's Drafting Time Savers

"Machine Drafting Data," a four-page quick-reference chart. "The Dimensioning of Machine Drawings," a 20-page booklet giving information on rules of dimensioning.

$1.00 each item for 1-5 copies; $.85 each, 6-10 copies; $.75 each, 11-50 copies; $.60 each. 51 or more copies.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

On-approval copies of these publications available to administrators and supervisors for 10-day examination.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

330 Thompson Street
Ann Arbor, Michigan

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

CONTENTS

School Vandalism . . . . Nathan Goldman 1
Recommendations for the Junior-High School James B. Conant 5
Open Minds, Flexible Schools . Saturday Review 10
Teaching Machines and Special Education Educational and Psychological Measurement 14
Education, a Mode of Association NJEA Review 18
Watch Out for the Pendulum Swing National Parent-Teacher 21
School Business Administrator Responsibilities The School Business Administrator 24
Educators: Still the No. 1 Target Audiovisual Instruction 27
Should Schools Teach "About" Religion? The Nation's Schools 30
Children Want to Know . Childhood Education 32
Important Issues in Elementary Education Educational Policies Commission 35
Impact of N.D.E.A. on Counselor Preparation The Personnel and Guidance Journal 39
Quo Vadis? . . . . Overview 42
Individual and Group Reading Instruction Elementary English 44
Teaching of English
  What Should Schools Accomplish? . . . NCTE 47
  Conflicting Assumptions . . English Journal 50
With Education in Washington 53
Educational News 57
New Educational Materials 61

Volume XXVI *December 1960* Number 4

THE EDUCATION DIGEST STAFF

LAWRENCE W. PRAKKEN, Editor and Publisher

JEROME C. PATTERSON, Managing Editor

WARREN R. GOOD, Associate Editor

OLIVER E. HANNINEN, Assistant Editor

BURLEY L. HENDRICKS, Assistant Editor

BARBARA N. LEAKE, Circulation Manager

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

THOMAS D. BAILEY, Superintendent, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

NATT B. BURBANK, Superintendent of Schools, Boulder, Colorado

JOHN S. CARTWRIGHT, Superintendent of Schools, Allentown, Pennsylvania

ARTHUR F. COREY, Executive Secretary, California Teachers Association, Burlingame

LYMAN V. GINGER, Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington

PHILIP J. HICKEY, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis, Missouri

HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, Chief, Elementary Schools Section, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

L. S. MICHAEL, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

FRED RAUBINGER, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey

JAMES E. RUSSELL, Secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.

GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Principal, The Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut

RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington

DONALD E. TOPE, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene

HENRY I. WILLETT, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

MEMBER OF

EDUCATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., Lexington 2-0020. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 1025 Harlem Ave., Glenview, Ill., PArk 4-0800. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 711 S. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1960 by Lawrence W. Prakken

Volume XXVI DECEMBER 1960 Number 4

A Socio-Psychological Study

School Vandalism

NATHAN GOLDMAN

Nathan Goldman, Associate Professor of Sociology at Syracuse University, New York, was project director of a two-year vandalism study conducted under contract with the U.S. Office of Education. Condensed from his final report, A Socio-Psychological Study of School Vandalism, *published by Syracuse University Research Institute (1960), particularly pages 102–115.*

A VARIETY of causes for vandalism and damage to public schools have been posited by investigators. Some find the cause in the child, some in the parents, and some in the schools. We find a variety of causes ranging from inadequate custodial service and parental irresponsibility, to personality aberration in the child. Prescriptions for cure include such diverse techniques as putting screens on vulnerable windows, frequent police patrol of school-building areas, making the parents pay for damage, or improving the morale of students.

Actually, however, there has been no systematic research program to investigate the various possible causes of damage to public-school property. Believing that such a study might provide data leading to the understanding and control of vandalism, and, in addition to saving of money, might provide much needed information leading to understanding of this peculiar form of child behavior, we undertook to make just such a study of the public-school system of Syracuse, New York.

Since the everyday damage to windows, books, equipment, desks, walls, etc., constitutes a greater *total* cost to the schools than the few spectacular events which come to the attention of the public, it was decided to focus the investigation on a consideration of the socio-psychological differences between schools having different degrees of damage of the everyday variety. The school, thus, was the unit of study instead of the individual.

All of the 16 public junior-high

and senior-high schools in Syracuse participated in this two-year study. We sought for variables in schools rated high in damage and those rated low, variables that might be used to account for such differences. Each school was first examined twice, some three times. To obtain the additional information needed, teacher interviews, student questionnaires, and a history of each school all were used.

On the basis of the correlations obtained in the analysis of this data, the following conclusions were reached about the relations between certain observed variables and the amount of damage in the schools studied:

CONCLUSIONS

Low socio-economic status and high instability of the community.—It was shown that high damage is associated with the low socio-economic status of the census tract in which the school is located, the advanced age of the buildings, and the low occupational status of fathers of students. Two of our low socio-economic rank schools, however, did not have the expected high damage.

In the histories of the schools, our respondents stressed the *transiency* and *instability* of the area. It is very probable, therefore, that a low socio-economic level, coupled with instability and high rate of transiency, is characteristic of schools with high-damage rates. In such an area the student is less likely to identify with the conventional values of education and of property than in a more stable and middle-class neighborhood.

Change and instability in the school.—Frequent staff turnover or changing a large segment of the staff at one time may disrupt the functioning of the school. A change in the school program or introducing a new grade will create, at least temporarily, some disturbance in ordered relations. Rapid or extensive changes may affect definitions of conduct, increasing disorganization and the probability of deviant behavior by the students.

Personal identification with the school.—A relatively low level of interest in the academic program and a relatively low degree of self-identification with the school was characteristic of students in high-damage schools. Drop-out rates were strongly related to the damage rank of the school. It was indicated that dissatisfaction arose when students felt the curriculum did not meet their needs or when they felt that the school administration was not sufficiently concerned with student welfare. Teachers and parents in high-damage schools also seem to have lower identification with the school.

Administration and leadership.—Teachers in low-damage schools, in contrast to those in high-damage schools, reported that the administration in the school was democratic, strong, or rigid. The authoritarian nature of school administration was highlighted in the reports of students in high-damage school that they had little or no voice in planning school programs. In contrast, students in low-damage schools reported that they met regularly with the principal and helped plan school programs.

Interpersonal relations.—The nature of interpersonal relations in the school differed in high- and low-damage schools. Relations in high-damage schools between various groups appeared to be more limited and more formal than those in low-damage schools. Teacher-principal relations in high-damage schools also were reported to be on a much more formal level than those in low-damage schools.

The personality of the principal was frequently mentioned as an important factor in school morale. Feelings of insecurity, anxiety, or frustration in the principal were said to be communicated to members of his staff. Where all school personnel—including the custodian—were able to establish good rapport with students and communicate the approved conduct patterns to them, conventional attitudes prevailed. Destruction of property and other norm violations were low.

Welfare.—It was indicated in interviews and in school histories that where the curriculum did not meet the educational or vocational requirements of the students, dissatisfaction was high. Obsolescence of school apparatus, failure to repair broken equipment, overcrowding in classrooms, etc., were interpreted as lack of interest of the administration in the student welfare. Resentment was expressed by students overtly against the tangible aspects—the physical plant and equipment—of the school.

Thus, community change, changes in the school program, student population and staff, administrative leadership, degree and type of interpersonal relationships, and the extent to which the welfare needs are felt satisfied, are all related to disorganizations of personal relations and to vandalism. Teachers and school administrators will very probably find in these conclusions many implications not apparent to a social-science researcher not trained in the art of education.

As a social system, the school has a technology, a set of rules of conduct governing the relations between members, and an ideology or value system guiding the conduct of its members. Many of the circumstances generally associated with situations of societal strain or maladjustment were found to be characteristics of high-damage schools. Community instability and change, an excess of bureaucratization (in which rules become ends in their own right rather than means), predominance of formal relations, and a lack of communication between members are all evidence of societal strain.

IMPLICATIONS

What are some of the implications for educators that can be drawn from this study? For one thing, since community instability and change were found significantly related to the amount of damage in a school, and since it is known that communities change in a fairly predictable way, the school should be located where these would be minimized.

Not only that, the curriculum should be kept abreast of changes in the composition of the student population and should be attuned to the students' needs. Teachers should be aware of changes in the interests of the student.

Rapid or frequent change in program, administrative procedures, or routines should be avoided. When changes in several areas of the school program or organization take place at one time without proper adjustment of the personnel involved, the strains created may lead to serious disruption of the school's operation.

There should also be easy two-way communication between all levels of school personnel to facilitate the exchange of information. A matter which seriously disturbed many teachers in our study was that the results of their disciplinary referrals to the principal were not communicated back to them. An involvement of the teacher in the principal's decision would give the teacher a sense of participation in the administration of the school.

Parents should be given the opportunity to get to know the teachers and to know the policies of the school administration. A closer identification of parents with the school will add to the better identification of their children with the school values and norms.

The role played by the principal is significant. Since the principal is the key figure in determining school policy and the administration of that policy, careful selection of the principal is essential. Care should be taken to see that his personality, educational philosophy, training, and ability as a leader are adequate for the job.

The administration and leadership of the school determines, to a large extent, the nature of the interpersonal and academic relations. These relations should be structured so as to increase identification of teachers, students, and parents with the school.

In the administration of the school, it is essential that the welfare of students and teachers be considered along with the formal task of education. Students or teachers who feel that the principal or the administration is not interested in their comfort and happiness, as well as the development of their intellects, will develop little feeling for the school.

From the point of view of the community, school vandalism is of concern because of its menace to the social order. Vandalism represents a simultaneous threat to two important values in our society—education and property. An attack on these two highly valued institutions by the child may be a portent for more serious attacks on society when he reaches the adult stage. •

Today's 14 Points

Recommendations for the Junior-High School

JAMES B. CONANT

In Education in the Junior High School Years

MY comments and recommendations for junior-high schools are based on a study I made with the assistance of a small staff during the school year 1959-60. We visited 237 schools systems in 23 states.

I have found great diversity with respect to the place of grades 7 and 8 in the organization of school systems. Indeed, there appears no end to the variety of organizational schemes. There is also no consensus whatever among experienced educators as to the place of grade 9 in the organizational framework. Should it be the top grade in a three-year, junior-high school or the bottom grade in a four-year high school? What has impressed me is the extent to which educators with considerable experience disagree about the organizational scheme.

As a result of the wide diversity in school organization, the professional disagreement, and my own observations, I conclude that the place of grades 7, 8, and 9 in the organization of a school system is of less importance than the program provided for adolescent youth. When enrolments are large enough, I am convinced that it is possible to provide the kind of experiences the pupils need regardless of the structure of the school system.

James B. Conant, former president of Harvard University, has completed a one-year study of public junior-high schools, financed by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York. Reported from Education in the Junior High School Years, *published by Educational Testing Service (1960), 9–13, 16–37.*

Because of the transitional nature of these grades, teachers with an unusual combination of qualifications are needed. Teacher-training institutions have responsibilities in this regard. Grades 7 and 8 certainly should not be viewed as a training ground for senior-high-school teachers.

The following recommendations are based on what I consider to be the best practices in schools I visited:

1. *Required subjects for all pupils in grades 7 and 8.*—The following subjects should be required of all pupils in grade 7 and 8: English (including heavy emphasis on reading skills and composition), social studies (including heavy emphasis on history and geography), mathematics, and science.

In addition, all pupils should receive instruction in art, music, and physical education. All girls should receive instruction in home economics and all boys, instruction in industrial arts.

The instructional program in grades 7 and 8 is essentially a required program for all pupils; electives generally do not begin until grade 9. English, social studies, mathematics, and science should be given one period a day for five days a week. From my observations, 60 to 70 percent of weekly classroom time might well be devoted to these subjects.

MATH AND LANGUAGES

2. *New developments in mathematics and foreign languages.*—A small fraction of pupils should start algebra (or one of the new brands of mathematics) in grade 8. Some, if not all, pupils should start the study of a modern foreign language on a conversational basis with a bilingual teacher in grade 7.

The reason for the early identification of very able pupils and the start of mathematics beyond arithmetic in grade eight is that at least some of these pupils can complete a four-year sequence by the end of grade 11 and be ready for college-freshman mathematics in grade 12. This saving is valuable for a boy or girl on the long educational road to a professional career.

If the study of a language is started in grade 7, the school board must be ready to finance continuing instruction in grades 8-12 in the same language. The essential goal for those capable of taking the six-year language program should be something approaching mastery of the language.

3. *Basic skills.*—Instruction in the basic skills should be continued as long as pupils can gain from the instruction. This applies particularly to reading and arithmetic.

To my mind, the minimum goal for almost all pupils at the end of grade 9 is that these future voters should be able to read with comprehension the front page of a newspaper at a rate of about 200 words a minute. Pupils who in grades 7, 8, and 9 are reading a year or more below grade-level expectancy should have special provisions made for them. I especially stress reading because pupils will not succeed in high school unless they can read at least at the sixth grade level.

4. *Extraclass activities.*—Group activities which have particular relevance for early adolescents should be part of the total program. These include musical and dramatic activities, assembly and home-room programs, interest clubs, intramural athletics, and student council.

These experiences are intended to broaden a pupil's program, to develop his interests and talents, to give opportunities for leadership, to contribute to his growth as a member of a social group.

5. *Block-time and departmentalization.*—Provisions should be made to assure a smooth transition for the young adolescent from the ele-

mentary school to the secondary school. There should be a block of time set aside, at least in grade 7, in which one teacher has the same pupils for two or more periods, generally in English and social studies. Otherwise, grades 7, 8, and 9 should be departmentalized; that is to say, pupils should have specialist teachers in each of the subject-matter fields.

6. *Flexibility in schedule.*—The daily class schedule should be sufficently flexible to avoid the necessity for pupils to make choices between, for example, science and foreign languages.

Some educators desire a six-period day with long periods for supervised study. I prefer a seven-period day or the equivalent; otherwise it is difficult to pay attention to the varying needs of children with different abilities. One can schedule in a six-hour day the required program and the activities mentioned previously, but there is difficulty in scheduling remedial work in reading and arithmetic for those who need it and foreign-language instruction for those who can benefit from it.

7. *Challenging all pupils.*—Instruction should be organized to provide intellectual challenge for the whole range of abilities found in a school.

Grouping for instructional purposes is a controversial subject. Interestingly, I have found considerably less objection to it in grades 7, 8, and 9 than I found three years ago in the senior-high school. Perhaps my principal argument for grouping in academic courses rests on the fact that in every school there is a certain fraction of pupils who read well below their grade level. These pupils need special books and teachers. To mix in an English class pupils reading three years below grade level with those reading three years above grade level is to do everyone concerned an injustice.

8. *Guidance and testing.*—A full-time specialist, or the equivalent, in guidance and testing should be available for every 250-300 pupils.

Perhaps a word of caution is necessary. It is by no means easy to find competent guidance personnel. Obviously it is better to delay the expansion of the staff than to employ unsatisfactory people.

In some schools in which many pupils drop out in grades 9 and 10, a form of group instruction in vocational opportunities has much to recommend it. Otherwise, I am not enthusiastic about sequential, regularly scheduled, group guidance.

HOMEWORK

9. *Homework, marking, and promotion.*—Meaningful homework is profitable in grades 7, 8, and 9; drudgery, however, is not meaningful homework. Teachers and principals should develop careful procedures to assure coordination of homework assignments.

High standards should be maintained in academic courses in grades 7, 8, and 9 because of the necessity for mastery of basic skills.

Some pupils take longer to develop these skills than other pupils, and this fact implies that standards of accomplishment, not effort alone, are needed below the senior-high level in required academic courses. This fact also implies that a few pupils might be held back, though certainly for no more than two years in the first eight grades.

I think a progression of homework from one hour a day in grade 7 to two hours a day by grade 9 is not excessive for many pupils. Homework should be preceded in the classroom by a careful explanation of what is to be done. There is a serious problem of coordination of homework assignments to prevent any one teacher from usurping too much time.

In my first report, I recommended that in grades 9-12 pupils should be marked in accordance with their effort in required courses, but that strict standards should be maintained in elective courses. The marking situation in the required courses is different in grades 7 and 8 because of the necessity to master, in particular, reading and arithmetic skills. Therefore, while indications of effort may be appropriate, they are not sufficient criterions to measure the degree of mastery of the basic skills. Unless a child has mastered these early skills, he is likely to have considerable difficulty in dealing with his textbooks in the various subject fields.

A policy of nonpromotion should be applied, however, with care and discrimination. Each case must be viewed separately, for repetition of a grade may be useless and may, in fact, be harmful.

10. *Program in grade nine.*—In the ninth grade, the curriculum should provide for the usual sequential elective program as well as the continuation of the required courses in general education. Many pupils will keep up their interest in art, music, and industrial arts and at the same time commence an elective sequence that will lead to the development of a marketable skill. Others will begin an elective sequence in academic subjects.

FACILITIES

11. *Minimum special facilities.*—Satisfactory instruction requires that the following facilities be available: a well-stocked library, a gymnasium with locker rooms and showers, specially equipped home-economics rooms for girls and industrial-arts rooms for boys, an auditorium or assembly space for at least half the student body, and cafeteria space for at least one-third of the student body. I consider these facilities a bare minimum. Desirable as well are special art, music, and science rooms.

12. *Coordination of subject-matter instruction.*—Whatever the organization of a school system, there should be careful coordination in each one of the subject areas in grades K-12.

Often an excellent social transition is provided for pupils between one school and another in the same system, but too often there is a failure to coordinate subject-matter instruction between schools and between grades even in the same school. Without question, I consider the lack of what educators call articulation one of the most serious problems in many school systems.

13. *Size of system-wide professional staff and teacher load, grades 7-12.*—A balanced staff of 50 professionals for 1,000 pupils is the minimum acceptable ratio for an adequately staffed school system. A higher ratio of professional staff to pupils is desirable.

The teacher load in grades 7-12 should be approximately the same in most subject areas. The reasonable limits of this load are five teaching periods involving 125-150 pupils per day. Physical-education teachers can carry a load of 200 pupils a day, whereas English teachers should be responsible for no more than 100 pupils. It is possible that a few teachers of advanced academic electives in the senior-high school may also have somewhat smaller pupil loads. A professional librarian should be responsible for no more than 750 pupils.

Duties of teachers which are peripheral to the main task of teaching should be minimized and constantly re-evaluated. No other duty takes precedence over classroom instruction.

14. *Leadership role of the principal.*—The difference between a good school and a poor school is often the difference between a good and a poor principal. A good school invariably means strong leadership by the principal. To exercise leadership, the principal must have sufficient administrative assistance in the form of assistant principals and clerical help. The extent of assistance should vary according to the size and nature of the school. Generally speaking, a full-time assistant principal at the secondary level should be available for every 750 pupils; a clerk or secretary should be available for every 250 pupils.

The question to be answered: Is the principal forced to spend a considerable fraction of his time doing routine tasks that could be done by either an assistant principal or secretary? If he is, he cannot perform his role as instructional leader; help should be provided.

Although I mentioned at the beginning that the place of grades 7, 8, and 9 in the organization of the school system is of less importance than the program provided in these grades, size is important for economical operation. At least 125 pupils are needed in each of grades 7 and 8 if one is to departmentalize satisfactorily with specialist teachers, group satisfactorily, and offer a broad program including industrial arts and home economics as well as pupil activities. With this number in a grade, a separate, three-year junior-high school would enrol 375 pupils, a figure I consider a bare minimum. •

Magic Numbers Are on the Way Out

Open Minds and Flexible Schools

ARTHUR D. MORSE

In Saturday Review

FIND out and report on the most promising new approaches to education being tried in American public schools."

That, in brief, was the assignment I received recently from James E. Allen, Jr., New York State commissioner of education. Dr. Allen explained that he wanted the public schools of New York State to have the benefit of the experience of other schools systems throughout the country which had blazed new educational trails.

It was with these instructions that I set out on an exciting exploration of education today.

What facts emerged from this study? One conclusion was that American education is showing signs of being lifted out of its rut. Resistance to change, an odd characteristic for a profession that honors the inquiring mind, is melting slowly under the heat generated by new ideas.

Another conclusion is that the process of change needs to be speeded up. The crisis is *now*, and there is dramatic need for action.

To an observer wandering through the nation's schools, the conclusion is inescapable that the process will be speeded only when more parents, teachers, administrators, and school boards recognize the existence of the rut.

Arthur D. Morse is a staff producer for "CBS Reports" and author of the book Schools of Tomorrow—Today *(Doubleday, 1960). Reported from* Saturday Review, *XLIII (September 17, 1960), 67–68, 90–92.*

It is exemplified by the dulling uniformity of the typical elementary school. What is needed is flexibility, and flexibility is impossible when all subjects are taught by one teacher to classes of uniform size all day. The organization of youngsters into classroom groups of 30-plus hardens the conventional school's rigidity. There appears to be no evidence that a fixed pupil-teacher ratio is ideal in all learning situations. The number of pupils who can benefit best from a lecture is quite different from the number who can participate effectively in a give-and-take session. The caliber of the students, the quality of the teachers, and the nature of the subject matter would seem to be ideal criterions for class size. They rarely are.

Youngsters are grouped according to the magic number of the moment, say 30 to a teacher. Pupils receive virtually all their instruction from a single teacher—language arts, arithmetic, science, social studies, music, and art (with occasional visits from itinerant specialists). The classroom teacher is omnipotent in a system which assumes that she is equally capable in each subject area, an assumption made by no other profession.

During the past few years a ripple of innovation has been fanned into a national wave by foundations, imaginative local educators, independent citizens' committees, scattered school boards, a few (very few) state departments of education, individual teachers, and some death-defying principals.

Today a sense of adventure courses through the schools that have adopted the experimental programs. Clichés and stereotypes are losing their firm footholds. Tried and untrue formulas are being discarded "with all deliberate speed," and if the deliberateness usually exceeds the speed, it doesn't halt the inexorable progress.

Magic numbers are on their way out. Experiments in all parts of the country have indicated that the traditional teacher-pupil ratio of 30 to one is in fact too large for discussion purposes and too small for lectures. Consider the far-reaching implications of this one breakthrough. The teacher who is capable of instructing five times the usual number of students frees four other teachers for that period. They can utilize this time in the preparation of their own subject matter, possibly for large-group lectures in areas of their own competence. The four can meet for cooperative planning, a departure from the traditional isolation. The time can be used to harness community resources for a future presentation—to work with libraries, museums, laboratories, or industries that have vivid contributions for the classroom.

The teacher who reaches five times the traditional number of students casts new light on solutions to the teacher shortage and suggests some answers to the salary dilemma. When she enlists the aid of devices like magnetic tape, film slides, and overhead projectors that cast magnified images, she hurdles another educational rut. "If we have a shortage of superior teachers, let's spread individual talents as far as possible," say the experimenters.

Throughout the United States, teachers originally responded to the advent of television as a threat to their security. The picture of an impersonal, robot-like communication between TV screen and child, eliminating the need for the teacher, was transmitted by word of mouth and by educational publications. Gradually it became evident that television could provide scarce talents otherwise not available to school systems—conversational foreign-language teachers for elementary grades; enthusiastic science teachers demonstrating equipment lacking in most schools; experts of national prominence; and, most important, superior teachers with that rare magnetic quality that holds and influences students.

As of last spring, 569 school districts and 111 colleges and universities were utilizing television for instruction. Great refinements have been made since the schools took their first hesitant and expensive steps in this direction.

Obviously the mere use of television does not improve anything. A mediocre teacher on television has the power to spread her mediocrity like a brushfire. There are some schools using television as a "gimmick" and striving for theatrical effects at the expense of learning—but these are rare and cannot be cited fairly in an attempt to downgrade one of the most hopeful developments in education.

Television reflects the end of the magic number approach to education and the adoption of new methods of organizing our schools. So does the concept of team teaching.

TEAM TEACHING

An elementary school may be divided into several teams, each consisting of several teachers and 100 or more students. A team may cross two or three grade levels. The teachers in each team plan flexible-sized classes, basing their size on the nature of the subject matter, the caliber of the students, and the type of presentation. Children may be mixed chronologically. A youngster gifted in mathematics but lagging in language arts can work with an advanced group in the former and a special class in the latter. Youngsters are not penned in the same room with the same teacher all day. Instead, the skills of several teachers, specializing in the subject matter in which they are best qualified, are brought to bear on each child.

Team teaching offers tangible rewards in salary and prestige for the demonstration of leadership and exceptional teaching skill. Each team is headed by a team leader and one or more senior teachers who are paid additional salaries for their increased responsibilities. This organization provides an outlet for the gifted teacher who aspires to leadership in her profession and whose only alternative in the past was an administrative position removed from the classroom.

Lexington, Massachusetts, and Norwalk and Greenwich, Connecticut, are among the communities currently experimenting with team teaching in their elementary schools. Team-teaching techniques are not limited to elementary schools but are also coming into use in high schools.

The Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School, directed by J. Lloyd Trump, has broken new ground in an effort to free high schools from their traditional shackles. The commission, appointed by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and backed by the Ford Foundation and the Fund for the Advancement of Education, has supported experimental programs in about 100 secondary schools.

Dr. Trump writes in the commission's publication, *Images of the Future*:

> The secondary school of the future will not have standard classes of 25 to 35 students meeting five days a week on inflexible schedules. Both the size of the groups and the length of the classes will vary from day to day. Methods of teaching, student groupings, and teacher and pupil activities will adjust to the purposes and content of instruction.

It is significant that the National Association of Secondary School Principals, under whose aegis Dr. Trump has worked, is a department of the National Education Association. This most powerful of the nation's education groups has a tradition of conservatism in the acceptance of new ideas, but once it supports innovation it can end the tragic 20 to 25 year lag between the origination of an idea and its acceptance.

The NEA's Project on the Academically Talented Student, directed by Dr. Charles E. Bish and supported by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, is another example of its pioneering activities. Dr. Bish has developed a clearing house whose files include thousands of programs for the talented and a consulting service whose impact has been felt all over the United States. In June, his project released a report based on a conference held by the NEA and the Modern Language Association. The report recommended that the study of foreign languages begin in the elementary school, preferably not later than the third grade, and continue in "an uninterrupted sequence for 10 years."

Coming on the heels of successful experimentation in the teaching of languages in elementary school, this report should help to administer the *coup de grace* to superintendents and principals whose apathy has slowed this obviously desirable development.

The wave of experimentation throughout the nation is impressive, but it is, in fact, a drop in the bucket. There are about 45,000 school districts in the United States; only a relative handful are examining new ideas. Ingenuity, imagination, and tolerance are perhaps more essential to our school crisis than is money. Too few school superintendents, school-board members, and government officials have kept pace with progress. The New York State Education Department's willingness to consider unorthodox programs, as attested by its commissioning of "Schools of Tomorrow—Today," is a unique exception.

Philip H. Coombs, program director of the Ford Foundation's Education Division, has pointed out that "what the advancement of education requires, just as much as more money, is a larger and more dynamic frontier of experimentation and new developments, and a pervasive professional mood which not only tolerates innovation, but which welcomes and encourages it. Herein lies today, I believe, education's greatest shortage."

This is one shortage we cannot afford. •

Programming Is Important

Teaching Machines and Special Education

LAWRENCE M. STOLUROW

In Educational and Psychological Measurement

As early as 1926, Professor S. L. Pressey of Ohio State University discovered the possibilities of automation in education. The applied psychology of learning, in the form of machines that both taught and tested, harbored for him an "industrial revolution in education." Unfortunately, Pressey was 30 years ahead of his time.

Educational automation was recently rediscovered by B. F. Skinner of Harvard University. His ideas have been significant and have contributed to the management of the learning process, particularly through the manipulation of reinforcement. Skinner has pioneered the programming of materials for teaching machines and has generated much of the current interest. Some feel he has started a new movement which could have rather profound effects on the teaching profession, school design, and our whole concept of education.

One of the most potent characteristics of a teaching machine is that it permits the experimental psychologist to impose on human learners in the classroom the kind of control that formerly was achieved only in the psychology laboratory. While they are learning any of a wide assortment of meaningful materials, strict controls can be imposed. Consequently, in the foreseeable future, the much needed *rapprochement* between experimental psychology and education seems highly probable.

Lawrence M. Stolurow is a member of the faculty at the University of Illinois, Urbana. Reported from Educational and Psychological Measurement, *XX (Autumn 1960), 429–48.*

For psychological purposes, eight properties appear to be important, if not critical, characteristics of teaching machines. They are:

1. Presents information either as statements and then questions, or as paired sets of abstract symbols to be associated, and accompanying incomplete associations for testing purposes. This is the *presentation* function.

2. Requires a response that is overt and measurable. Form of the response and the measure taken may vary from machine to machine and/or the training purpose involved. This is the *response* function.

3. Compares, or permits the learner to compare, the response with a predetermined correct response. This is the *comparator* function.

4. Provides knowledge of re-

sults and has the potential for doing this after every response. This is the *feedback* function.

5. Programs information according to a set of rules that are capable of being made explicit if only at the level of being pointable. This is the *programming* function.

6. Allows for variability in the information presentation rate. This is the *pacing* function.

7. Combines learning and its measurement into a single set of coordinated operations. This is the *collator* function.

8. Automatically rejects the correctly-responded-to items so that the learner sees a smaller number of items from trial to trial. This is the *selective* function.

BASIC TYPES

There are three basic types of teaching machines. These are: (*a*) the nonadaptive, (*b*) the partially adaptive, and (*c*) the adaptive. Adaptivity, which is probably the most critical feature of a teaching machine, is the capacity of the machine to adjust in one or more ways to the specific needs of the individual learner. There are several dimensions along which machines can be adaptive, and some machines are built so as to provide adaptation in one or more dimensions.

The nonadaptive machine category includes pseudo-teaching machines. Scrutiny reveals that they do not embody the requirements of a teaching machine. One example is the flash card. It performs in the same way for every learner, and programs in the same way, whether or not the learner made a right or wrong response.

The partially adaptive machine also runs all learners over the same sequence of events. However, some of the partially adaptive machines prevent the learner from moving on to the next item until he has responded correctly. They have the advantages of recording the learner's responses for later analysis and, depending on their use, permitting the learner to pace himself. Another distinguishing factor of these machines is the automatic rejection on subsequent presentations of items which the individual responded to correctly.

The adaptive machine has the ability to branch, or alter, the teaching program, depending on the various revealing characteristics of the learner's responses. Whenever the subject makes an error, the machine does something different, and each type of error produces different results. It interprets each error. One interpretation is to assume that the learner failed to obtain information that was available. In this case, for example, he may be told to reread the question. Another interpretation would be that the subject has failed to learn some information presented earlier. In this case he may be told why he was wrong. This information is presumed to fill in, at least to some extent, the diagnosed gap in information.

There have been numerous

studies of possible uses of teaching machines with special education. These studies, among other things, are forcing a reexamination of what was assumed to be a positive relationship between mental age and rate of learning. There are studies showing that with efficient programming of learning materials the correlation between a measure of intellectual ability, or of aptitude, and learning scores tends to be reduced to zero. Thus, it would appear that, with efficient methods of learning, the poorer student is assisted sufficiently so that he becomes, in terms of criterion performance, indistinguishable from the more able students. While the data on this point is meager, it is an interesting and provocative finding.

INABILITY TO LEARN

Woodrow argues that mental defiency is an inability to *grow* rather than inability to learn from practice. He feels that ability tests such as the IQ predict the initial level of performance but not the gain scores. Additional research in this area could have important implications for the education of the mentally retarded. If Woodrow's position were to be supported, then it would suggest two things of particular interest to special education.

First, if the learner had the minimum level of ability required by the task, then the rate at which he learned it would be a function of factors other than his ability. This would mean that minimum mental-age levels should be identified for school tasks.

Second, it suggests that learning research should be directed toward variables which determine rate of learning rather than at comparative studies of normal and retarded children. Research in special education would be concerned with the way information and skills should be taught rather than with what should be taught.

Related to this possibility that efficient programs will lead to reduced individual differences in learning efficiency are the following: The adaptive teaching machine would adjust to individual needs and more or less guarantee mastery; the teaching machine is potentially as sensitive as the most sensitive teacher to the error of students; the teaching machine is definitely more patient than the most patient teacher, and the machine does not tire; and the machine may have "toy-appeal" and thus produce increased motivation.

Another problem of interest in special education is the pacing of materials—time per new association. Some studies have compared rates of learning as related to the different sized "steps" in the program. Barring the fact that no one has an objective measure of step size, the general observations of the writers of teaching-machine programs have tended to support the research finding that small steps are better for everyone, both bright and dull students. Several researchers find that all learners make fewer errors with programs that have smaller, and therefore more, steps. The data here again suggests that the problem of the slow learner is retention rather than learning, supporting Woodrow's position. An interesting implication of these results is that it may not be necessary to develop separate programs for the bright and dull students in terms of size of step.

TWO HYPOTHESES

Presently, we see two hypotheses emerging: (*a*) that the teaching program, in terms of steps that are most effective for learning, may be the same for both the bright and dull learner; (*b*) that the critical difference in teaching bright and dull children may be in the management of the responses. For the retarded learner it may be necessary to have him practice overt responses, whereas this may not be necessary for the bright student. For example, in language arts it may be necessary to provide for the spelling of words by the retarded and for their pronunciation of words aloud so as to counteract for loss in retention, whereas for the bright learner this may not be necessary.

This conclusion about the possible source of difference between bright and dull learners should not be interpreted to mean that research on programming of learning materials is unimportant. The contrary is, in fact, the case. We know so little about the factors in programming that they have to be studied regardless. We need to have an efficient program as a base from which to work on these other variables.

Current interest in automation in education may or may not pass, leaving little in its wake. It may, perhaps, leave us with much that is substantial. My impression is that the automation of many teaching situations could have profound and lasting implications for special and general education. The *rapprochement* between experimental psychology and classroom instruction itself would be a significant contribution, and the teaching machine could bring this about since teaching machines can provide the kinds of experimental controls that are needed to examine variables in learning. In addition, teaching machines permit the use of a learning theory concept for analyzing the complex learning situations of the classroom.

Some of the emerging findings in this movement seem to have useful and interesting implications for research on basic problems in special education. This movement can provide not only a new orientation to research on the learning problems in special education, but it also could shed new light on several old problems which have important implications for teaching. There is some evidence that this is taking place and will continue to develop at an even more rapid pace. ●

Not "Toughen Up" but "Tone Up"

Education as a Mode of Association

FREDERICK M. RAUBINGER

In NJEA Review

Frederick M. Raubinger is New Jersey State Commissioner of Education, Trenton. Reported from NJEA Review, *XXXIV (September 1960), 26–27.*

WOODROW WILSON once reminded us that a school or college is not only a home for learning but also—and equally important—a mode of association.

Wilson provided a definition from which we can derive a sense of direction—a definition appropriate not alone for the Princeton of which he was president, but for the high school of which you may be principal, or the elementary school in which you may teach.

What can we say about a school in which the most productive mode of association exists? What kind of school is it? It is a place where an atmosphere of friendship, cooperation, and understanding pervades all activity. It is a place where teachers gain satisfaction from working and planning together, where individuals are important and where cheerfulness and encouragement give stimulus to children. It is a place where the attitudes of teachers and pupils demonstrate that it is more important to cultivate than to cull.

It is a place where parents are welcomed, not primarily because they are voters and taxpayers, but because teachers realize that they can learn as much from talking with parents as parents can learn from the teachers. And it is a place where teachers recognize the psychological truth that everyone needs a sense of status, a feeling of belonging, of being a part of what is going on; that deep in everyone is a desire to be considered a person of worth.

One compelling reason why a school should nourish a mode of association which offers some measure of stability to young boys and girls is that the world today is not a very stable place. Each teacher should seriously question the idea that a child brings only his mind to school and leaves everything else outside—his senses, his fears, his hopes, his emotions. That is an absurdity in view of our realization that everyone is a complex of feeling and reason, doubt and hope, inadequacies and talents.

The essence of the school and the mode of association that it should foster is the relationship of the teacher to the pupil. No mechanical aids, no books or films, no courses of study, helpful as these may be, can substitute for the thoughtfulness, the understanding, the skill, the wisdom of the superior teacher in daily association with those he teaches.

Too often we forget the importance of the kind of association that prevails in a school. We sometimes become too involved in synchronizing the bell schedules, manipulating the intercom system, operating the detention hall, working out the visible card index, revising the marking system, devising the foolproof system of room passes. It is no wonder that Burton Fowler warned that social and moral values in education are being threatened by mechanics. The school today finds itself called on to counter the dehumanizing influences which abound in contemporary culture.

"TONE THINGS UP"

Evidence that we have sometimes forgotten the essential nature of learning and teaching can be found in the recent agitation to "toughen things up," to "speed things up," in our schools. It remained for a poet to set us straight. Speaking on television last year, Robert Frost said he didn't think we need to toughen up or speed up. Probably what we need, he said, is to "tone things up" a little. This statement has a human ring to it, and seems a more fitting call to action for school people.

Much of the present confusion in educational thought has resulted from the fast pace of change in the world. Much of our difficulty, in education as in other phases of human endeavor, results from the tendency to resist change or to ignore it, to meet the present by retrogressing to the ineffective solutions of the past.

Certainly there is not a school anywhere which has used to the maximum all that has been discovered about the nature of the learning process, or that has tapped more than a fraction of the latent power of education, or that has yet caught a complete vision of what good teaching can do to enrich the lives of children and young people.

But we need to keep in mind as we survey the swiftness with which change takes place that in the midst of the most dramatic changes, many values endure. Human beings today are psychologically, and biologically, much the same as they were a hundred or a thousand years ago. They have the same basic needs as human beings that they had in the past.

The miracles of modern technology, it seems to me, can only be measured by the degree to which they advance the welfare of mankind.

We cannot look to technology alone for the kinds of change which the world most needs. Changed behavior, which is the only kind of change that offers hope for the future, has the best chance of coming about through the work of the teacher. The job of education today, as in the past, is to change behavior.

Wilson, in contrast to some of the spokesmen of mid-century reactionism, was talking about education in its broad, humane framework. Many who are entering the controversy about our schools today, it seems to me, are talking about training. It is important that every teacher understand the distinction between the two.

Those who extol the virtues of Russian schooling fail to understand that the patron psychologist of Russia is Pavlov—Pavlov of the conditioned reflex and associational learning, a psychology eminently fitted, as it is generally interpreted, to control and condition and train a people in the ways the rulers wish them to be trained. Such training is a fearsome thing, effective in a mechanistic society not really concerned with human values. Training, however effective in the short run for Soviet purposes, is the antithesis of unfettered inquiry, of humanism and humaneness, of Judaic-Christian ideals, of our Western culture, of respect for personality, and of love for freedom.

Sometimes education as here invisioned encompasses some aspect of training, but by no means does it always do so. Education is more than training, and it transcends training.

Education does not always lend itself to results that can be immediately observed and recorded, because it bears its fruits in slow change in people: change in outlook and perspective; change in selfawareness, understanding, and point of view; change in sympathies, relationships, values, appreciations, judgments.

The results of education cannot be measured and gaged with precision, since they will become apparent during the course of an entire lifetime.

Education cannot be made uniform, nor can its process be prescribed minutely in advance. It is never exactly the same for every learner. Education—teaching at its best—is a creative and a recreative experience for both teacher and learner.

Too many spokesmen of today take a pessimistic view of attempts to provide the kind of teaching we need. We can't possibly find enough good teachers, they say. We can't possibly afford the cost. So let's find some shortcuts and settle for something less than the best. Put the master teacher before the television camera. Assign the few good teachers to the few good pupils. Bring in the housewives to grade the papers.

Admittedly the task of providing good teaching is difficult, but I for one am not willing to agree that it is impossible. I am not willing to settle for something less. •

WHOEVER acquires knowledge but does not practice it, is like one who ploughs a field but does not sow it.—From *Texas Outlook*.

A Crash Program Can Be a Rash Program

Watch Out for the Pendulum Swing

RALPH H. OJEMANN

In National Parent-Teacher

WHEN we are confronted with a problem on a national scale, we usually want to do something about it forthwith. We attack it with vigor and enthusiasm, sometimes with so much of both that we tend to go to extremes. Often we begin to think and talk about "crash" programs to cope with it.

There is much to be said for this attitude, which has become almost an American tradition. However, crash programs sometimes make it difficult to keep things in perspective or to see the problem as a whole, whether it is one of national security, national health, or upgrading education.

For example, in the late 1920's, when vitamins and their importance in human nutrition were just becoming known to the general public, there was a drive to get people, especially growing children, to eat the proper foods. We heard constantly about the importance of vitamin-rich vegetables, and parents worried about getting their children to eat these foods. The result: a rash of feeding problems.

What was the trouble? Research had established the fact that every child needs foods that supply vitamins essential for growth. Only one thing was wrong: Many children wouldn't eat the beans, carrots, or spinach. Some parents tried stern discipline to force children to eat proper foods. Others tried letting the children alone in the hope that they would eventually get around to eating the vitamin-rich foods on their own. Neither method worked.

It was all a matter of overemphasis. Parents, teachers, and society in general were paying too much attention to vitamins and too little to helping children handle the new foods. In their concern for getting vitamins into children, parents overlooked the fact that a child is not born with the ability to handle all the foods offered to him.

Take another illustration. Today we are facing certain international problems that some people are suggesting we meet with a "crash" educational program. It is said that we are lagging in the missile and satellite race. Very well. Let's force our children to study more mathematics and science and to study them harder, so in the long run we

Ralph H. Ojemann is Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Iowa, Iowa City. Reported from National Parent-Teacher, *LV (October 1960), 26–28.*

can catch up with the Russians, impress the less developed nations, and win them to our side.

There is nothing wrong with stressing the study of science and mathematics or with finding students who are gifted in these fields and encouraging them to develop their special abilities. But if we put all the emphasis on this one part of the international problem, will we get "in orbit"? Let us see.

ANALYZE THE PROBLEM

When we analyze the problem, we find that our lack of scientists is not the only element present. Perhaps Americans have not realized fully what satellites mean to large groups of people in other countries. Is the problem, then, only one of producing more scientists? Or does another part of it involve increasing our knowledge of other peoples—their hopes and fears, how they think, what we mean to them, and how much or how little they know about us?

The international problem won't be solved by cramming science down the throats of school children any more than the problem of vitamins was solved by stuffing them with spinach.

Presently we are hearing demands for a crash program to curb juvenile delinquency. This problem, however, like the shortage of scientists and the feeding of vitamins, is a complex affair. The causes are many. Prevention is not just a matter of cleaning up slums, employing more policemen, or setting up more youth camps. Neither is it a matter of being soft or hard in discipline. The problem is first and foremost one of having more parents who understand children.

Probably most of us think we *do* understand children. But do we? If we do, why are some of us strict one day and lenient the next? There is good evidence to show that such inconsistency in discipline is very disturbing to a child. It tends to make him insecure and confused. He doesn't know where he stands or what is expected of him.

There are, it seems, two principal reasons for our inconsistency. First, we become so concerned about our own problems that it's hard for us to put ourselves in a child's place and realize how he feels. Second, we do not understand or appreciate what the child's behavior really means.

Suppose we do manage to feel somewhat as the child feels, extend our understanding of his behavior. What kind of discipline would such insight and understanding lead to? To the "soft" kind? Or to "hard" discipline? The answer is, the pendulum shouldn't swing to either extreme. The wisest procedure would take a form something like this:

Young Tom constantly fights with his little brother and sister. We say to ourselves, "Something must be bothering Tom. A child who fights a lot is often troubled with feelings of anxiety. What may be producing the dismaying feelings? Does Tom have the right play materials? Are we dictating to him too much?" After considering these and other questions, we ask ourselves, "How can we help Tom to find a more constructive method of bolstering his security and self-respect?"

Then we say to Tom, "I think I know how you feel and what you want. But you know as well as I do that this isn't a good way of solving your problem. Let's try a different way."

In like manner, a child who doesn't want to study usually has something bothering him. The same is true of children who don't want to go to school. During World War II, a group of parents sought advice concerning their sons who did not want to go to high school. The county superintendent solved the problem. Living in a rural area, the boys could drive tractors and perform many farm operations almost as well as their fathers. Hearing over and over again that food would win the war, the boys felt sincerely that it was much more important for them to raise food for the nation than continue school.

The superintendent rounded up several farmers who had not gone to high school. Now in their early thirties, they were old enough to experience the effects of their decisions but young enough to appreciate how the boys felt. By talking with the boys, the farmers, who all wished that they had continued their schooling, were able to put the problem in a new light for the youngsters. These boys had been thinking only of the immediate future, but now they could see the long-run effects of their decision.

Whether the issue involves health, education, juvenile delinquency, or discipline in the home, the peril of pendulum swing is always present. It arises when we overlook the several different parts of a problem and put all the emphasis on a single phase.

What would we think of a surgeon who, when operating on a patient, concentrated only on the diseased organ and failed to consider how much strain the patient's heart could stand? Or consider a farmer who ignored the soil needs of his crop and placed all emphasis on insecticides. We expect the surgeon to know the nature of his patient, the farmer to know the nature of his crops. We expect both to make decisions in the light of this knowledge.

Our big job, as we discipline our children for living in a free society, is to help them learn how to make such decisions. Not by dictatorial methods, not by permissiveness, but by planning with them, leading them to see all sides of a problem, can we train them in the art of deciding wisely. The pendulum need not swing. It can point steadfastly to the path of understanding so that we may firmly guide the child to acquire what he needs to make his own choices. This is the foundation of freedom. For it has been said, "That person is free who recognizes himself as the author of the laws he obeys." •

Responsibilities of the School Business Administrator

FREDERICK W. HILL

In The School Business Administrator

Frederick W. Hill, Chairman of the Special Committee of the American Association of School Business Officials, is Assistant Superintendent in charge of Business Affairs, Minneapolis Public Schools, Minnesota. Reported from The School Business Administrator, *published by Association of School Business Officials, Evanston, Ill. (1960), 10–18.*

SCHOOL business administration has existed since the beginning of the public-school system, although originally it may not have been considered as important as it is today.

Historically, it appears that the necessity for the appointment of a full-time school business administrator was first recognized more than a century ago—in 1841—when the city council in Cleveland, Ohio, passed an ordinance providing for the appointment of an "acting manager" of schools. It is interesting to note that Cleveland did not appoint a superintendent of schools until 12 years later.

During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, many school trustees and school superintendents recognized the importance of good business administration. They felt that the way to accomplish this was to employ a well-prepared business administrator to whom important business-management responsibilities could be assigned. Some school trustees employed a professionally trained educator to be superintendent and a businessman was appointed to be the business administrator. Both individuals had equal status in the administrative hierarchy; each was directly responsible to the board of education for his own area. This concept of management, commonly referred to today as "dual control," received favorable reception in several areas.

In most other areas, school trustees have adopted the "unit control" plan, which places all administrative responsibility with the superintendent of schools. The trustees in those areas have delegated to the superintendent complete responsibility for the administration of the school district.

We now recognize that decisions relating to curriculum, school organization, and personnel all affect and are affected by decisions on finance. By accepting the relationship between budget planning and educational activities, and classifying all as administrative responsibilities, the school trustees have enhanced the professionalization of all school administrators, including the school business official, all of whom have achieved a status highly respected by the public and the teaching profession.

The concept of the position, responsibilities, and qualifications of the school business administrator has been evolving over many years and still is in the process of development. Therefore, the job responsibilities in any given community must be described in terms of the local historic patterns, the local staff available, and the unique competencies of the particular individuals involved. No two school business administrators have identical tasks. However, wide experience suggests a broad range of duties usually associated with or assigned to him.

The business administrator is a member of the top team in school management. The best school business officials are those who understand the prime goals of education. School business administration is not an end in itself, but is a service contributing to effective education. The good school business administrator will seek to insure that every activity of his staff will have vital meaning in such areas as: improving educational opportunity; providing and maintaining funds, facilities, and services; obtaining and developing noninstructional personnel; and maintaining effective interrelationships with the community.

In *any* endeavor, the basic functions of management are planning, organizing, controlling, programming, coordinating, directing, staffing, and evaluating. Inherent in each function is a high-level evaluation and appraisal process. The test, of course, is always results.

An effective school business administrator must be a good manager. And within the area of school business administration, these seven functions of management are largely his responsibility. In large school districts under the unit control plan, he would be one of a number of assistant superintendents who would go to make up the superintendent's cabinet—the advisory body to the superintendent. He might also act for the superintendent at his direction in the same manner as any of the other assistant superintendents might act. This places the position in the category of major responsibility because it represents one member of the team that helps to determine school-district policy.

To develop this situation, the responsibilities of the school business administrator must be well defined and he must be given the authority to act. This latter is very important because he must not be inhibited in the carrying out of his responsibilities within the over-all policy of the district. This is the kind of environment that provides relief for the educational administrator, who thus need not worry about the functions of school business management and who can rely on this official to provide him with information that will make him more effective before the public.

In the past century, many specific tasks associated with school business administration have been catalogued and described. However, because of the "uniqueness" of every local situation, it is useful only to suggest certain major areas or functions for which school business administrators are typically given responsibility.

The following are examples of the functions carried out by the school business administrator, in cooperation with all members of the staff having related administrative responsibilities:

He assists in coordinating the views of administrators, teachers, and citizens in translating the educational needs and aspirations of the community into a composite financial plan.

He is responsible for all purchases, including equipment and supplies for new buildings as well as for existing buildings. He considers the educational implications associated with each purchasing decision.

He works with administrators, teachers, and lay personnel in determining and planning for school-plant needs, and in acquiring school sites and managing school property after the educational standards are determined.

He helps interpret the educational program to the public by preparing materials for distribution, addressing and working with service clubs, the PTA and citizens' committees, etc.

He helps to secure personnel for all positions in the area of school-business management. He handles individual and group problems related to working conditions, benefits, policy, and procedure.

He organizes and directs a program of in-service training aimed at increasing the skills of school-management personnel and at developing proper attitudes toward the educational objectives of the school district.

He has the responsibility for providing, operating, and maintaining facilities which will assure maximum educational utility as well as a healthful, comfortable, safe environment for pupils, teachers, and the public.

He supervises the operation and maintenance of the school bus fleet to insure safe, economical, and comfortable transportation for children.

He establishes and supervises the accounting system necessary to provide school officials with accurate financial facts as the basis for formulating policies and decisions.

He supervises clerical personnel in the business office, and, on occasion, in other school offices.

He has general responsibility for operation of school food services by providing economical and satisfactory facilities and efficient management of the school-lunch program. •

How to "Sell" New Ideas

Educators: Still the No. 1 Target

HERBERT HITE

In Audiovisual Instruction

Herbert Hite is Associate Professor of Education at Washington State University, Pullman. Reported from Audiovisual Instruction, V *(September 1960), 206–8.*

A BEWILDERING array of new devices has suddenly come to the attention of the teacher and administrator—educational television, teaching machines, language laboratories, teaching teams, flexible class schedules, and other techniques with which readers of this magazine are familiar. So many ideas, coming so fast, are an entirely new trend in our educational history.

Two factors beyond the control of educators have much to do with this accelerated rate of change. One is the population explosion. In the next 20 years, America's total population will increase by two-fifths, but the age group from which teachers can be recruited will increase by only one-fifth. No matter how much teachers gain in salaries, or how much they gain in status, not enough teachers will be available to staff our schools at present ratios of one teacher to 25 or 30 students.

A second stimulus to innovation has been the explosion of knowledge. Many students now in high school soon will be performing complex jobs which have not yet been invented. To prepare for such positions, students need to have more basic knowledge about more fields than did past generations. Mathematics, science, foreign languages, and the social-science curriculums are being reorganized with this fact in mind.

We already know from initial research and experience that the new patterns of instruction can do a better job for more students with more efficient use of available staff. Effective application of these new media and methods will bring about an instructional revolution. Essential changes will be made, however, only if such innovations are accepted quickly by the teaching profession. Teachers and administrators are notoriously conservative in this respect. If we in education adopt the newer media at our usual leisurely rate of progress, we will have failed to provide an education which will equip students to cope with the world in which they will work and live.

It appears, therefore, that it is just as important to encourage teachers to accept worthwhile educational innovations as it was to develop the innovations in the first place.

What does research show us in

regard to how people are persuaded to accept new ideas or devices? Actually, research does not provide us with a formula. We can adapt, however, some techniques which work for the purveyors of tooth paste, good will toward industry, and the profit motive. To illustrate, let us assume that we want to persuade teachers to try teaching machines. Here are six principles which have been developed to gain public acceptance for a new idea and which might be applied to our problem:

APPLYING SIX PRINCIPLES

Communications specialists know that it is far easier to create a favorable attitude toward an idea or product with an effective first impression than to change a negative attitude already formed. Teaching machines are still relatively new, thus chances are that most teachers will have no strong attitudes toward them, positive or negative. It is very important, therefore, that the first systematic message about teaching machines be carefully worded and illustrated. Coining the phrase "teaching machine" was probably unfortunate. Our campaign to gain acceptance might well be aided if the term were changed to "selfteaching devices."

We will want to demonstrate these machines in a way which is simple to understand and for a purpose nearly all teachers will accept. For example, we might demonstrate to a group of elementary teachers a machine designed to teach spelling. First, we would assure them that our machine is no Frankenstein. It is a device which leads students through material in easy steps. The machine immediately reinforces, or rewards, the correct answer or corrects the wrong one. Thus, students learn to spell faster and better than they otherwise would.

We would stress the fact that the machine frees the teacher from her role as drillmaster so that she can perform more highly professional duties. We would hope that this first impression would be understandable and flattering to teachers.

The second principle is that people are more inclined to accept new ideas from persons whom they respect. Teachers will be likely to try out the devices if we arrange for the superintendent or principal to make the explanation. Public-relations experts have identified something called a "power structure" in communities which determines attitudes of many community members. Thus, in order to persuade teachers, it will be necessary to discover who among the staff are opinion-makers and persuade these few to take the initiative.

If the wrong person advocates innovations, an information campaign actually may result in less acceptance than if no information had been provided.

The third principle is that people tend to accept what they believe "they figured out for themselves." A classic study in human relationships was conducted during World War II to discover how housewives could be induced to purchase the less attractive cuts of meat. It was found that allowing housewives to work out their own solutions in small discussion groups changed buying practices faster than "telling them." By the same token, teachers will probably be more willing to experiment with teaching machines if they are permitted to work out applications on their own and in discussions with other teachers.

OFFERS REWARD

The fourth principle is that an individual is likely to accept a new idea if such an acceptance offers an immediate and personal reward. Teachers need not be guaranteed a material reward or prize for making a good effort, but, like everyone else, they respond favorably to praise. They will accept a message which reinforces their good impression of themselves. The teacher who sees himself as a "frontier thinker," or whose principal is intrigued by new ideas, probably will want to be among the first to try teaching machines. The one who sees a threat to his job, or whose principal looks on experimenters as radicals, will be resistant.

The fifth principle is that people generally are less apt to accept a new device if a number of technical problems must be mastered before the device can be put to use. Teachers will accept or reject the use of teaching machines partly on the basis of their past experience with other teaching gadgets—the 16mm motion-picture projector, for example. If using the equipment and securing a film proved to be a frustrating and complicated process, the teacher will not be inclined to submit himself to what he anticipates will be new frustrations. Where the use of new devices has been handled through simple and effective procedures, we would expect teachers to have more receptive attitudes.

Finally, public-relations researchers have discovered (with something of a shock) that most people resent being manipulated by "selling" techniques. Resentment of obvious public-relations techniques seems to be particularly strong among well-educated people. The "hard sell" approach probably will fail as a way of gaining acceptance for teaching machines. We will do better if we point out the limitations of these devices as well as their advantages. We would encourage teachers and administrators to choose to try these devices, rather than attempt to force innovations on them.

The coming instructional revolution will be both difficult and painful. Teachers cannot be expected to revise voluntarily methods they have spent a lifetime developing. But in light of the needs of today's students, this job of persuading teachers to utilize the new media is important. It may well be the most important single job of audio-visual specialists. ●

What the Administrators Think

Should Schools Teach "About" Religion?

In The Nation's Schools

PUBLIC high schools should find a place in the curriculum to teach *about* religions. Except for this addition, schools are doing all they reasonably can be expected to do in the teaching of moral and spiritual values.

These views were expressed by the majority of administrators responding to September's opinion poll conducted by *The Nation's Schools.*

Fifty-two percent favor instruction *about* religions in the high-school curriculums. Taking the long view, a Michigan schoolman commented: "I believe knowledge of the various religions—their basic beliefs and objectives—can be of significant value in helping to further national and world understanding."

A superintendent from Missouri favors teaching about religions in the high school "if the material is carefully planned and taught by persons who could maintain an unbiased, objective point of view."

"Each high-school student should be taught about religions," stated a Texas administrator. Then adding this prayer, said: "God help the teacher, however, who runs afoul of the bigots and crackpots in the community!"

Perhaps the 45 percent who are against teaching about religions thought of this; at any rate, most of them anticipated trouble.

Reported from The Nation's Schools, *LXVI (September 1960),* 74

An Ohio official predicted that "the word 'about' would soon be lost and there could be trouble."

Some prefer that "comparative religions" be taught at the junior-college level, where the subject might be chosen as an elective. Others contend that history courses offer enough teaching in this area for high-school students.

Whether moral and spiritual values are taught or "caught," as one administrator suggests, public schools are doing as much as can *reasonably* be expected in this area, believe 61 percent of the respondents.

Said a Washington superintendent: "With pupils' school environment restricted to a maximum of about 1080 hours during the school year, the best the school can do is *supplement* the teaching of moral and spiritual values, not assume the major responsibility."

Already, schools are teaching good sportsmanship through supervised playground activities; various classes are presenting the ideals of citizenship, mentioned a

Nebraskan. Teachers act as examples and indirectly teach values to students, said an administrator from Minnesota. Schoolmen from Maine and South Dakota reported that their schools are participating in a program of released time for religious instruction in local churches.

Going a step farther, a Wisconsinite offered, "Knowledge of what is right does not necessarily lead to right conduct. The problem is how to bolster knowledge with a desire to *do* what is right. This calls for more practice and example."

Some respondents contend that the schools are doing their share in teaching moral and spiritual values, but other agencies are not. Said an Iowa official: "Perhaps it is a worn-out statement, but I still believe that the home should do most of this teaching."

One group of superintendents invoked the doctrine of separation of church and state. "I think all of us teach moral and spiritual values, but I can't see that the school should infringe on or take over the work that rightfully belongs to the churches," stated a Kansan.

"Probably the schools are doing all that is reasonable to expect, considering the crowded curriculum, the wide variety of standards concerning spiritual values, and the time-consuming duties of a non-instructional nature that are required of teachers," commented a Texan. "Nevertheless, results are not being obtained."

Thirty-eight percent of the respondents would probably use the Texas superintendent's last statement as a reason for saying that schools should do *more* in teaching moral and spiritual values. A second administrator from the Lone Star State declared: "Tomorrow's citizens must be stronger spiritually to withstand the tempestuous onslaught of isms."

A Minnesota schoolman would accomplish this through "teaching by example only and entirely without words"; a New Yorker by "discussing questions of moral significance with individual pupils as pertinent situations arise"; a Wyoming official by "emphasizing fair play and honesty in all classes."

Before schools attempt to assume more responsibility, there are changes that must be brought about, caution some respondents. "Until we reach some reasonable standards on moral and spiritual values, the public schools are on shaky ground even if the teachers teach unofficially," maintained a Massachusetts schoolman. •

IN keeping the public school free from religious teaching, we are conferring a benefit not only on the community but on the vitality of religion . . . Neither by training nor instruction is the public-school system capable of teaching religion effectively.—*Robert Gordis,* Columbia University.

Children Want to Know

KENNETH D. WANN

In Childhood Education

WHILE we recognize the impact of our technological age on children's learning, there is a need for a more precise understanding of what children are learning from their experiences and the ways by which they organize and use the great array of unorganized ideas with which they are bombarded.

To satisfy our own need in this respect, the author and a small group of teachers undertook a study of the concept development of young children. The teachers represented schools in communities of widely differing socio-economic levels. The study was of three-, four-, and five-year-old children in their own classrooms over a period of five years.

We were not prepared for what we found. Casual observation had convinced us that the children knew and understood a surprisingly lot about many things, but the extent and depth of their information and understanding were sources of amazement to many of us. A topical analysis of the data collected revealed concern with information about hundreds of topics ranging from dinosaurs to rockets and from people and places to weather and electricity. It was clear that the interests of children were global, even universal, in scope. Their interests were not confined to any one period of time or to any one locality.

The range of information is illustrated by these anecdotes drawn from hundreds of similar ones collected by the teachers.

During morning snack time, four-year-old Maggie was breaking her crackers into tiny bits. The teacher said, "Maggie, what on earth are you doing?"

"I'm making an infinity of crackers," Maggie responded.

The teacher, somewhat surprised and not at all sure that Maggie knew what she was saying, asked, "What is an infinity, Maggie?"

"Oh, you know, it just goes on, and on, and on," Maggie answered.

Beth and Jimmy, five years old, were looking at a book about the sky. Beth said, "Water comes from the clouds."

"Yeah, but you know air ends up in the sky at the beginning of space," Jimmy responded. "There's no water or air up there, and you can't live there. They're trying to get through but they can't."

Kenneth D. Wann is Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Reported from Childhood Education, *XXXVII (September 1960), 8–12.*

It was apparent early in our study that these children were on a continuous quest for more and more information. We have evidence to indicate that concept development was a conscious process to these children. It was evident that the children repeatedly sought more information about a given topic and that they consciously tried to relate and test one bit of information against another.

DEVELOPING CONCEPTS

We were deeply impressed with the struggles of young children to understand, to interpret, and to put together into a comprehensible pattern the pieces of the complex puzzle that is their world. This is not easy, and children were found developing misconceptions as often as they were developing accurate concepts. Excerpts from children's conversations will illustrate this struggle.

A four-year-old saw a great machine excavating for a huge building and asked, "What kind of machine made the world?"

Another four-year-old found a picture of the Spirit of St. Louis. It did not look right when compared to the present-day models he knew and he asked, "What's wrong with this airplane?"

Other children were confused when they found two large cans of ashes waiting for the trash collector. These city children had never seen a fire make ashes.

"What's in the can?"

"Ashes."

"Where do they come from?"

"Cigarettes, you dope."

Even the simplest words sometimes can be confusing. One child asked, "Is stupid a bad word?" Replied his friend, "No, it means crazy, but I don't know if it's bad."

In their efforts to put together related information and ideas into a conceptual framework that had meaning for them, the children employed all the processes involved in thinking and reasoning. There is ample evidence that these children were associating ideas, attempting to discover cause and effect relationships, and discriminating and generalizing about those things which they see, hear, and feel in their environment. These are the essential elements of the process of conceptualization at any level.

There were numerous cases recorded in which children were generalizing. In many instances the generalizations were accurate and well based. In other cases the generalizations were premature and inaccurate. Since this is an essential element in concept formation, it is significant that children attempt to use the process. Inaccuracy and hasty generalizations simply indicate a need for help which adults can supply. The following illustrates the process employed by children:

On Fridays, the teacher in a day-care center for the four-year-old group remained late in the day, so she always arrived later than other days.

Alice: "Today we are going to eat fish."

Maria: "Why."

Alice: "Because when the teacher comes late we always eat fish."

Essential to the development of understanding and the successful interpretation of environmental data is the ability to see cause and effect relationships, to make inferences, and to reach logical conclusions. Observations in this study brought about a growing respect for children's ability to employ these processes. For example, Margaret and Laura were watching the teacher modeling clay.

Margaret: "Are you making this for your mother? Who is your mother?"
Laura: "Her mother is her child's grandmother."

The store of information children have today, their continual quest for knowledge, and their struggle to organize information into a meaningful conceptual framework have significant implications for school programs. Teachers of young children must support these youngsters' efforts to acquire and organize information. Nursery schools and kindergartens have usually been more concerned with developing emotional stability and skills of social adjustment than with contributing to intellectual content. They must continue to be concerned with emotional and social development, but it becomes increasingly important to recognize the children's need for help in understanding the ever-widening world that they see and hear about every day.

We must find ways to contribute information to young children that will build these understandings. We must find ways to answer their questions that preserve their great zest for learning. We must find ways to encourage and carefully guide their attempts to put ideas together and generalize about their experiences.

OTHER IMPLICATIONS

There are some rather pointed implications of this study of young children for elementary schools also. It is apparent that children bring to school a background of first-hand and vicarious experiences which have broadened their horizons far beyond their own immediate environment. Their questions and concerns range widely. They are ready to explore some deeper meanings and relationships in community life. Recognizing this, we also recognize that we cannot confine children's interest to their community. They are challenged to explore widely, and we must support their need to do this.

Essential to our utilization and support of the great potentialities of today's children to learn at any level is our recognition of the importance of preserving the willingness to think, reason, and seek answers to questions. More important than any specific information imparted to children are the skills involved in these processes. Teaching methods and materials must support and extend the ability to think, to reason, and to conceptualize or education becomes pointless. •

What about Homework, Foreign Languages, Nonpromotion?

Important Issues in Elementary Education

In Contemporary Issues in Elementary Education

THERE is widespread belief that American education must be more effective. Growing out of this sentiment are pressures for change. It is right and inevitable that these pressures have been directed in part at the elementary school. In fact, the unique potential of that school would justify greater public attention.

Today a number of issues face those who make policy for elementary schools. The following paragraphs treat a few of them.

No skill in education is more fundamental than reading. It is to be expected, therefore, that all concerned would urge early acquisition of that skill. The issue thus arises as to when organized instruction should begin. Because systematic teaching of reading is usually started in the first grade, the issue may be stated as follows: *What should be done with reading in the kindergarten?*

Research on the teaching of reading shows that some children gain from an early start. Others who start early do not, in the long run, progress as rapidly nor develop as great a liking for reading as do children who begin later. Still others are not ready to learn to read even in the first grade. Thus, it is not wise policy to teach *all* kindergarten children to read.

Reported from Contemporary Issues in Elementary Education, *published by the Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D.C. (1960), 10–18, 25.*

The claim of reading to a place in the kindergarten must be assessed in terms of the individual child's ability to profit from reading instruction, and in terms of the relationship of reading to the role which the kindergarten is particularly adapted to fill.

The kindergarten can and should teach reading when it contributes to the goals of the kindergarten, which are to help the young child adapt to school, to find his place in school life and in the group of which he is a member, and to promote readiness for learning in various areas. Reading or interest in reading is already a part of the lives of many five-year-olds. These children should be encouraged to develop their reading skill. Their very presence in the kindergarten may produce in other children the desire to read, and desire to read is a good beginning for acquiring the skill. But the teaching of reading to children who are not ready may create frustration which will inhibit later learning. Thus, the problem of timing the introduction of reading instruction is a matter of serving pupils on an individual basis, rather than setting a uniform policy.

Coupled with today's interest in the development of the linguistic abilities of Americans is the widespread belief that foreign languages are learned more easily before adolescence. Pressure has developed to begin the teaching of foreign languages earlier, thus the issue: *Should foreign languages be taught in the elementary school?*

The elementary-school years have considerable potential for shaping attitudes toward other peoples. Experiences with other cultures, including their languages, are therefore a valid part of the elementary program.

However, if the goal of the foreign-language program is to promote mastery of the language, organized and intensive instruction becomes necessary. To master a foreign language requires considerable concentration of time and energy. It is not easy at any time of life. Qualified teachers and special materials are required. If the school cannot furnish the time, the teachers, and the materials, it cannot successfully conduct a foreign-language program. If it can furnish them, it must still assess other potential uses of the same time and funds. A foreign-language program is not justified in the elementary school if it encroaches on pupil progress in the areas of the school's basic responsibilities.

A program with the limited goal of promoting an awareness of other cultures and languages and an interest in learning more about them is appropriate in the elementary curriculum. But several conditions must be met before a program designed to teach the language itself should be introduced. The community must be willing to allocate, on a long-term basis, the staff and materials required for language study and must find a satisfactory basis for choice of language. The school must determine which children stand to gain from a systematic and continued program. This means that such a program, while suitable for some pupils, should not include all the children in most elementary schools.

DEPARTMENTALIZED

As the relationship between knowledge and progress has become increasingly apparent, pressure has increased to stress further the knowledge aspect of the elementary-school curriculum by introducing more content from academic fields. In recognition of this practice, the issue has arisen: *Should the elementary school be departmentalized?*

Elementary-school teachers, particularly those who teach the upper elementary years, need substantial knowledge of the subjects which they teach. Departmentalization, therefore, appears attractive. But they also need substantial knowledge of each pupil. Under departmentalization the teacher sees more children, each for a limited time and in relation to a specific subject, so he is likely to know less about a child than if he saw him for longer and in more varied situations.

Fully departmentalized organization has been tried in some elementary schools; but research and experience have generally caused these experiments to be discarded.

Pupils require stable personal relationships. This does not mean that a child must remain in the same classroom all day with one teacher. Use of special teachers, team teaching, and teacher aides can be of benefit as long as such practices do not hamper the close contact of the classroom teacher and the pupil. The essential condition is that some one teacher have major responsibility for the curriculum and guidance of a group of pupils.

The desire to improve academic accomplishments in the elementary school has led to a demand for more and harder homework at earlier levels. Because learning is produced by a pupil's own efforts, it seems reasonable to demand more effort of the pupil in order to achieve more learning. The issue is: *What kind of homework should be assigned in the elementary school?*

Homework which ties the child's interests and energy to developing intellectual skills or to gaining insight can be valuable. But to assure that an assignment will be of benefit, it must be adapted to the individual pupil.

Assignments must be adapted to the home environment. Homework usually implies a home. But some students live in circumstances which do not merit that name. Little good can come from assignments which cannot be satisfactorily completed without a home library, time for uninterrupted study, or parent interest and cooperation. A mere increase in work will not necessarily produce an increase in learning. Teachers must be aware, also, of the total pattern of a child's day in order to decide how much of that day the school is justified in appropriating.

ACCELERATION, PROMOTION

The wide variation in growth rate among pupils and in their academic accomplishments inevitably raises the question of how they should be grouped and what recognition should be given to their progress. *Should the school accelerate or hold back pupils in terms of their ability to meet a uniform standard of achievement?*

The question should be evaluated in terms of the effect of such a policy on the children concerned.

Acceleration of rapid learners can be good for them. Effective teaching of such children places heavy demands on the teacher. Where other demands limit the teacher's time and energy, the gifted learners may not be challenged, and boredom and underachievement may result. In such circumstances, it may be wise to place these children in a more advanced class. There, at least, they will be in a closer company intellectually and may be better challenged.

Acceleration, however, though it may provide an acceptable answer for rapid learners, may not be the *best* answer. A child with a high IQ may have the intellectual potential of another child several years older, but he has not had the equivalent experience of life. How far he has developed physically and socially also has bearing on the kind of curriculum he should have and the companionship from which he will most profit. It may well be that his development as a considerate, responsible citizen will be better served by making special provisions for him in a classroom with children his own age, so that he can learn from others and contribute to the learning of others.

Acceleration can also be seriously damaging. By putting too much pressure on the child or by destroying the contact between him and his friends, it may result in increased psychological problems rather than increased learning. The wise policy is to make it possible to accelerate students in those cases in which persons who know the child judge that it will be good for him.

Sometimes it is desirable for a pupil to repeat a year. These cases, however, are rare. Among children who are held back, many set lower goals for themselves, try less hard, achieve no better, and become behavior problems. This damage does not result in compensating gains for the pupil concerned or for other pupils. Where nonpromotion is adopted, the range of abilities in the promoted class remains great, and pupil achievement continues to vary widely. The problem is one of grouping children so as to offer the best possible learning situation for each child and to permit children to progress continuously rather than by inflexible annual promotion.

Those who make the policies which shape the elementary school bear grave responsibilities. No school affects so greatly the lives of so many Americans. Its unique potentials demand that it be treated with the greatest respect. Proposals to change this school must be carefully weighed, recognizing that changes at this level are likely to bear greater consequences for the lives of pupils than equivalent changes at other levels.

One element is common to all contemporary issues and the new issues that will arise in elementary education. This is the central role of the teacher. The teacher, more than any other factor, determines the quality of elementary education. There is no substitute for a person of high integrity, sensitive to children and professionally trained, to perform the teaching function. As a consequence, the citizen who would seriously devote himself to the improvement of elementary education in the United States, should take as his first objective the recruitment, education, and retention in the profession of qualified teachers. •

The Future Looks Promising

The Impact of N.D.E.A. on Counselor Preparation

WILLIS E. DUGAN

In The Personnel and Guidance Journal

A SUBSTANTIAL impact on graduate programs for the preparation of school counselors has been made by counseling institutes provided under Title V-B of the National Defense Education Act. Fifty such institutes, conducted in the summer of 1959, enrolled more than 2,000 counselors and teachers preparing for counseling in secondary schools. It is estimated that 12,000 to 15,000 counselors will be reached by similar institutes subsidized by the N.D.E.A. in a five-year period. This total is approximately equal to the number of counselors presently employed in the nation's secondary schools. Thus, the impact in terms of numbers of counselors to be reached by this program is indeed significant.

Twenty years ago, few colleges and universities were interested in or qualified to prepare counselors and psychological workers for the public schools. Only a small proportion of the nation's schools had counselors or school psychologists. In the past decade, growth has occurred. The number of programs for counselor preparation and the number of counselors has probably tripled, perhaps quadrupled.

Willis E. Dugan is Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. Reported from The Personnel and Guidance Journal, *XXXIX (September 1960), 37–40.*

Desirable as this growth has been, it has proved largely to be a quantitative growth—an acceleration in numbers of programs and personnel. In the decade ahead, a significant obligation is clear—not only to meet the continuing pressure for more graduate programs and more counseling personnel, but also a demanding responsibility for improvement in quality. Quality not quantity is the really important variable.

It appears to me most appropriate at this time to identify some of the positive points of influence deriving from the N.D.E.A. program, and to delineate some of the concerns related to the current acceleration of subsidized counselor-preparation programs.

1. *Strong supportive influence of national leadership.*—The concern of the U.S. Office of Education for improvement in school counseling has alerted not only the public and administrators of public schools, but also institutions of

higher education to their responsibilities in meeting a need for effective guidance and counseling services in the schools. The leadership afforded by the U.S.O.E. staff has been cooperative and strong in a professional sense.

SHARED RESPONSIBILITY

2. *Increased cooperative interaction of related disciplines in the development and operation of counselor-preparation programs.*—The counseling institutes conducted thus far have accelerated the sharing of responsibility for counselor education among college departments of education, child development, and psychology. There is evidence of helpful involvement of other academic disciplines.

3. *Provision of rich opportunities for experimentation and development of new approaches to counselor preparation.*—Unquestionably, existing programs of counselor-preparation need "beefing up." A stronger emphasis on foundation courses in psychology and child development are long overdue. More clearly planned laboratory and practicum activities are needed. Often budget limitations have prevented such development. The N.D.E.A. subsidy and professional staff leadership offer much support for improvement and experimentation.

4. *Development of plans for professionally supervised counseling experience.*—This has represented perhaps the greatest single weakness in existing counseling-preparation programs. Supervised practicum is costly in time, facilities, and ratio of staff to students. N.D.E.A. institutes have supported and improved practicum activities through the much-needed subsidization of this feature.

5. *Increasing attentiveness to selective admission and continuing review of candidates for counselor preparation.*—Overwhelming numbers of applicants for enrolment have forced institutions to examine their selection methods and to establish more effective screening procedures. Extensive selection appraisal and review have been encouraged by the N.D.E.A. institute program.

POINTS OF CONCERN

While the general reaction of this observer of the N.D.E.A. counseling-institute program is favorable, it is possible to foresee some points of concern regarding the impact of this nationally subsidized program. These include:

1. Emphasis extended by the national-level program of counseling institutes might easily give the impression that counselor preparation requires only a short-term "crash-type" training program. Professional organizations and local counseling groups are well aware of the need for higher standards in counselor preparation. Support for this concern is needed at the national level to help balance the demand for quantity of counselors with an equal concern for the quality of preparation.

2. N.D.E.A. institutes must not be permitted to encroach on established, regular programs of counselor preparation. Most institutions of higher education with established programs work with limited staff and facilities. It is possible that subsidized institutes may divert these limited resources. Inroads on the time of regular staff members and imbalance in the use of existing facilities must be avoided.

3. Critical attention must be given by the U.S. Office of Education in the approval of subsidized institutes to provisions for adequate professional staffing and supporting facilities. Counselor preparation requires more than technique courses offered by one or two methods instructors. There is a critical shortage of qualified faculty for both ongoing programs and the new subsidized institutes. A national clearing center of additional qualified staff appears to be needed.

4. Lack of adequate involvement and participation of basic psychology staff and counseling psychologists could well represent one of the marked shortcomings of subsidized counseling institutes. Counselor-preparation programs are located largely in colleges or departments of education. A desperate need exists for qualified psychology staff to seek involvement and participation, not only in the planning stages but also in the actual teaching and operation of the institutes.

5. Evaluation of the total effect of the institutes in attaining the objectives of increasing the number and quality of counselors represents an essential obligation. Both the sponsoring university or college and the U.S. Office of Education must include provisions for institute evaluations. Some provisions for review and reporting have been made, but critical evaluation needs to be extended.

In short, counselor education has prospects for tremendous strengthening through the N.D.E.A. program of carefully planned and selected counseling institutes. The future of counselor education, to this observer, looks exceedingly promising on the basis of this initial year's experience with cooperative national leadership and N.D.E.A. support.

◆

THERE are some fortunate individuals who seem to know from an early age the work they wish to do. With these individuals, the counselor needs only to give information, such as opportunities in the field or the steps in preparation. Most young people, however, are not so blessed. Some struggle to choose between two or more alternatives, some enter a lifework for which they are unfitted, and some are like members of a student seminar who said they were "A.B.'s"—all befuddled.—From *Midland Schools.*

Quo Vadis?

In Overview

EDUCATORS hear *depechez-vous* and *mach schnell* when it comes to expanding their modern-language programs. But what about Latin? Is this elegant, dead language still an important one in the contemporary curriculum?

When the Uniontown, Pennsylvania, City Schools began revising its language program, school authorities decided to poll some college and university deans for their views on the importance of Latin in the high-school curriculum.

One hundred and thirty-two colleges and universities responded to the school's questionnaire. They were a highly representative group of institutions from all over the United States, including Ivy League colleges, large state universities, state teachers colleges, institutes of technology, parochial colleges, and small women's colleges. The following findings have been reported by Don S. Glass, Uniontown's superintendent of schools.

1. Of the 132 institutions, only three require Latin for admission. Wellesley College, Mass., requires it; Randolph-Macon School for Girls, Lynchburg, Va., requires it but does occasionally admit those with good records and a modern language; and Holy Cross College, Worchester, Mass., requires it for the A.B. degree only.

2. No admission preference is given to students with Latin over those with a modern-language preparation, 120 schools report. Those favoring Latin preparation include the three schools requiring Latin and four sectarian schools. Several responses were admitted to be the personal opinion of the dean of admissions and not necessarily school policy.

3. Eighty-nine schools believe that any need for Latin can be satisfied on the college level.

4. Eighty-six schools strongly recommend four years of one language rather than the common practice of two years of two languages.

5. By a ratio of four to one, four years of modern-language is preferred over four years of Latin for high-school graduates.

6. Where a school program is limited by enrolment, modern-language instruction is recommended over Latin by a two-to-one ratio.

7. Two-thirds of the colleges believe that the related values assigned to Latin, such as classical significance, derivation of word value, mental discipline, language construction, and word recognition,

Reported from Overview, *I (October 1960), 34–35.*

can be satisfied in other areas of instruction without studying Latin. Some replying "no" commented that while this is highly plausible, in many cases it is not being done.

8. Only 12 of the institutions require their graduates to take Latin for graduation on the baccalaureate level. Five of these are sectarian schools.

9. The majority believes that present world conditions dictate a more compelling reason for studying modern languages than for studying Latin. But they hold that Latin should be reserved for those with a scholarly interest in the subject.

10. Technical and engineering schools, specifically, are almost unanimous in their opinion that students should be prepared in modern languages.

A reply from the dean of admissions of a large eastern university seems to place Latin in a just perspective. He said, "Strangely enough, I think that the place of Latin in our culture may be enhanced by the change which I think is coming. Latin will take its place among the other subjects, like Greek and philosophy and archeology. It will attract those who love it—and will be more highly respected by the rest of us because of our respect for the scholars devoted to it."

The switch from Latin to modern languages is not limited to this country. Last spring Oxford University abolished Latin along with Greek as an entrance requirement for science students, and Cambridge University is planning to follow suit. This change has had immediate repercussions in Britain's secondary schools where Latin curriculum offerings are being considerably reduced. •

Those Foreign Languages

• Latin may be in danger of vanishing from the high-school curriculum in this country from lack of teachers, not from any lack of students, according to Sister M. Bede Donelan, professor at College of Teresa, Winona, Minn. Nowhere near enough high-school students continue study of Latin in college and prepare for Latin teaching, she said.

• Americanese—a two-boy conversation: "Wotchagotinatpackage?" "Sabook." "Whatsanamuvit?" "Sadickshunary fullanames. Botta pleecedog, gottagettanamefert."—From *Oklahoma School Boards Newsletter*.

• New Latin Name?: A pupil in junior-high school handed in a collection of leaves with one specimen given the name "Swiggum." The teacher took a second look at the leaf. It was sweet gum.—From *North Carolina Education*.

Elements of Strength and Weakness in Both

Individualized and Group-Type Reading Instruction

RUSSELL G. STAUFFER

In Elementary English

As long ago as 1888 educators were denouncing the lock-step method of instruction. Lock step meant that all pupils in a class, as one, were required to move forward at the same rate, in the same book, mastering the same amount of material to the same degree of thoroughness. Between the twenties and the fifties, teachers broke away from the whole-class pattern for reading instruction. Arranging children in a class into three groups became the common practice. In three decades it became evident, though, that what was happening was merely the replacement of a whole-class lock step with a three-group lock step.

It seems almost a paradox that, in answer to this challenging three-group, one-teacher circumstance, the movement during the fifties should be toward complete individualization of instruction. Is it any wonder that teachers with questions about how to handle three groups should revolt? If they are concerned—and they have a right to be—about the handling of three groups, just to think about teaching 30 children individually can be distressing.

Much of the effort toward grouping resulted from the advent of standardized tests, increased knowledge of individual differences, and the expanding supply of materials. Accordingly, practices were modified so that the good readers could move ahead in a book while the slow ones were allowed to drop behind and move slowly in the same book.

Russell G. Stauffer is Director of the Reading-Study Clinic of the University of Delaware, and Editor of the Reading Teacher. *Reported from* Elementary English, *XXXVII (October 1960), 375–82.*

Grouping within the bounds of a basic reader was soon found to be inadequate. Publishers responded with five books for first grade and two books for each following grade. This led to the practice of bringing into a classroom a supplementary basic reader to be used by the third, or slow group. Now the three groups had materials; but the teachers, rigorously following plans outlined in teachers' manuals, still found themselves trapped. They just could not do the things recommended and meet each group once a day.

For a time, teachers resorted to having groups II and III do workbook activities. The end result was that the workbooks deteriorated to "busy work," since the teacher did not have time to guide or check the workbooks.

Independent reading of other basic readers was tried next. Pupils soon discovered that basic readers were not trade books. Immediately questions were raised about the use of basic books that did not have the same grade-level designation as the grade in which they were being used.

Two clearly defined movements have emerged. One, homogeneous grouping on an interclass basis with the practice of using one book. Two, individualized reading instruction. Even a specific defining of boundaries shows that there is a great deal of overlap between the two approaches. Group-directed activities stimulate a great deal of individual thinking, reading, and reasoning. Individualized activities include a lot of group work. Each has elements of strength and weakness.

In a group situation the children benefit from shared experiences, estimates, and predictions—as each one reads the same selection. This permits each member to compare his predictions with those of others, to see how different members manipulated information in order to predict, to compare his conclusions with those reached by others, to evaluate the skills he has used, and to scrutinize the way others extended and refined concepts and generalizations gained through reading. Furthermore, in a group where all deal with the same material, authority for the acceptance of proof rests with the group as well as with the teacher. Each member serves as an auditor, examining and weighing proofs and conclusions presented—frequently by oral rereading.

INDIVIDUALIZED PROGRAM

The primary distinguishing feature of an individualized program is that pupils are not placed in traditional groups. Each pupil is free to work without interruption in order to pursue an interest. Materials read are, in a large measure, selfselected; and purposes for reading are largely selfdeclared and reflect each pupil's interests, abilities, and needs. Purposes may vary from vague, undefined desires for reading fiction to specifically declared goals requiring versatility in rate adjustment, such as reading to skim, to scan, or to study. The teacher is constantly available to give help as requested in attacking words not recognized at sight and in clearing comprehension needs.

An individualized program does not ignore the fact that individuals are social minded. They want to discuss what they read and to profit by the discussion; they want to share with others. So the group or class may often serve as judge or critic while the reader defends and supports his answers. Lines may be read orally to prove points. Papers and talks may be prepared to substantiate claims.

This brief review of the two types of reading instruction highlights the values of each. It is recommended, then, that a modified basic-reader approach be used. To do this effectively one must, first, drop the notion that a basic-reader program in and of itself is final and sacred. It is not. Second, one must drop the notion that time can be equated with equality. Not every group must be met every day for the same length of time. A third idea that must be discarded is that a basic book must be "finished" by all pupils in a grade before they can be promoted. Another practice that must be stopped is that of teaching reading as a *memoriter* process by presenting new words in advance of the reading and then having pupils tell back the story. If reading is taught as a thinking process, even short basic-reader stories will be read with enthusiasm.

Where instruction has been individualized, a frequent pupil comment is, "At last reading is interesting. Now we enjoy reading." Such comments are severe indictments of the misuse of basic readers. Teachers must be sure to provide many books and allow children to make their own selections.

Effective skills of word attack must be taught. Basic-reading books do not provide for such skill training. Such skills are presented only when studybooks or workbooks are well organized. Studybooks designed to parallel the basic-reader programs should be used and the skills should be taught systematically.

The reading program should be divided so as to allow about half of the time for each approach—a basic-reader program and an individualized program. This might be done by using the group approach with basic readers for a week or two, and then the individualized or selfselection approach for a similar period of time. Where a pupil is free to select his own materials day after day for two or three weeks, he is almost forced to examine his interests and decide carefully what he wants to do.

This modified basic-reader approach allows for the use of basic readers designed to develop reading-thinking skills in a group situation. The individualized reading program allows for seeking, self-selection, and pacing—with a library as the source of materials.

At first some pupils may find it difficult to assume responsibility and to participate in group action. They may be passive and aquiescing; they may be aimless; they may display anger or frustration. For these pupils, both the teacher and the class must feel a responsibility. Above all, though, controls must be exercised in so humane a way that a pupil's willingness to express himself and to participate in group actions will not be inhibited. He must not necessarily be joined with others in pursuing an area of interest or need. He must be led to recognize and pursue his own interests and needs. •

Results Are Only Partially Successful

What Should Schools Accomplish in English Teaching?

In The First Two R's . . . Plus

Reported from The First Two R's . . . Plus, *a pamphlet for parents published by the National Council of Teachers of English, Champaign, Illinois (1960), 3–8.*

ENGLISH is the native language of nearly 300 million men, women, and children. It is a second language for even more. It is studied in classes and by individuals everywhere in the world. A businessman in Tokyo who knows no French writes in English to a businessman in Paris who knows no Japanese, and the two understand each other.

Teachers in our schools today attempt to teach "good" English. But what is good English? This involves much more than correct spelling, or using the right verb or the right pronoun, or putting commas where they belong. Such things are important, but correctness alone does not result in good writing or speaking. Knowledge of grammar without practice in employing that knowledge does not result in good English. Analysis of sentences and drill on forms are not enough.

A paragraph may be free of "errors" and yet not be good English because it says nothing significant, or because it is vague, badly organized, or lifeless. Good English involves clear thinking, careful organization of thoughts, and choice of words that most clearly and efficiently convey those thoughts.

English, like every other language, is constantly changing. The English of a thousand years ago looks now like a foreign language, and even that of two or three centuries ago differs much from ours. Modern teachers try to help students follow the usage of educated men and women of today.

There is some evidence that today's elementary and secondary graduates read, write, and speak better, on the average, than did children in the past. But today's world demands so much linguistic skill that the average level of ability is not high enough. No one claims that the results of the millions of child-hours spent annually in learning English are as successful as is desirable. Here are some reasons why the results are only partially successful:

First, many teachers assigned to teach English classes have only superficial knowledge of English; some do not really know what good English is; some have little ability to read and interpret literature. Either because of the teacher shortage or for other reasons, many elementary classes are taught by teachers with little college work in English; in some high schools, half or more of the English classes are taught by teachers who lack a college English major.

Then, too, many elementary classes are too large to permit much individualized attention to children. In such a situation, adequate teaching of language skills is impossible.

Many secondary English teachers also teach considerably more than the 100 students per day that is recommended by the National Council of Teachers of English. It takes about eight minutes to analyze constructively a short composition. Mere grading without constructive help is useless. To grade 150 compositions a week requires 20 hours, in addition to the 25 hours in class, 5 or more hours for other school activities, 5 hours for clerical tasks, and 10 hours in lesson preparation. Faced with a 65-hour week, many teachers are forced to slight work in composition.

In addition, acceptance of the responsibility by *all* secondary and college teachers for demanding effective writing in their classes, whatever their subject is, is slow in coming. And acceptance of the responsibility in every home to encourage well-spoken English and to foster reading of good literature is also slow in coming.

To make English teaching more successful, much additional basic research is needed to discover how children learn the complex skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Comparatively few federal or foundation grants are made to help in this research or to help teachers improve the skills and knowledge they already possess.

ELEMENTARY PROGRAM

What really should the elementary school accomplish if English teaching is to be successful? The elementary schools, together with the home, provide the foundation on which all later learning rests. If a child learns the basic skills of language, his success is more likely in *all* school work, for mastery of most school subjects depends on competent reading, writing, listening, and speaking. In addition to serving as a useful tool, language competency helps the child to develop social understanding, to appreciate beauty, and to discover more about himself and the world in which he lives.

A good elementary-school program in the English language arts includes:

Continuing instruction in reading, leading in the upper grades to material with excellent literary qualities, though on subjects and in language that children can understand.

Continuing instruction in writing, proceeding from simple group compositions to both factual and "creative" compositions of two or more paragraphs.

Instruction in specific skills, such as spelling, punctuation, and letter writing.

Frequent speaking activities, both individual and group, for pleasure as well as for information.

Rich experiences in all classes, involving the use of language many times every day with consequent expansion of vocabulary.

Above all, instruction consistent with each child's individual needs and abilities. Not all children come from equally favored backgrounds, learn at the same rate, remember equally well, or have equal sensitivity to language, but all can and should be helped to stretch for something beyond their immediate grasp.

SECONDARY PROGRAM

Now what about the secondary schools? What should they accomplish? Secondary teachers necessarily build on what children have already learned. In turn, they are providing instruction that will help their students later, either in college or outside school walls. Fortunately, the knowledge and skills needed for success in college do not differ greatly from those needed for success in most jobs.

A good secondary English program should include the following:

Instruction in advanced reading skills, such as reading for specific purposes, adapting speed to material and purpose, critical reading, skimming, and use of indexes and other tools.

Study of much material of high literary quality, along with mastery of the basic terminology needed for intelligent discussion of literature, and some study of the mass media.

Much practice in writing of varied types and for different purposes, with stress on organization and on focusing of thought, and with careful comment by qualified teachers.

Study of the nature of language in general and of the characteristics of the English language in particular, as well as advanced work on such specific skills as spelling and punctuation, and stress on selection of exact and effective words and grammatical structures. English communication is not words but wording.

In all classes, challenging and maturing experiences involving use of language in speaking and writing.

Steady attention to each student's individual linguistic needs, and gradual increase in difficulty to challenge his rising level of ability. •

• Lucy, a third grader, proudly showed her report card to her mother and said, "Mother, me and Tommy is the best they is in English."—From *The Christian Science Monitor.*

• Steve, 6, was sure it was wrong to say, "I'm the strongest, aren't I?" Asked what he would say, he replied, "I'm the strongest, huh?"—From *Parents Magazine.*

Is It a Skill or an Art?

Conflicting Assumptions in the Teaching of English

G. ROBERT CARLSEN

In The English Journal

SLOWLY but surely, for a period of about 50 years, a gulf has been developing between the assumptions traditionally held by English teachers about the nature of the language arts and the assumptions forged by research scholars and theorists in the field.

For the purposes of this discussion, the conventional assumptions held, probably by the majority of classroom teachers of the United States, will be designated as *traditional*. The assumptions growing out of research and theory will be called *modern*. The assumptions cluster around several important ideas, but each one develops a specific aspect.

As an initial point of conflict, the traditionalist assumes that, if instruction has been successful, language usage by a group should be absolutely uniform. He believes that in the syntax, the vocabulary, the forms, the spelling, the pronunciation, and the semantics of a language, all people should be brought into perfect harmony. The teacher may insist that a word has a single meaning.

Opposed to that viewpoint, the modern teacher assumes that while there is a core of commonality in the language of a group, the language is subject to almost infinite variations among its users; that stamping out such variations is not necessarily desirable. The modernist believes that language is related to total personality and that language structure varies with one's personality, with the impact one is trying to make, and with the message that one is communicating. Word meaning is subject constantly to the meaning that the users intend for it.

In another point of departure, the traditionalist assumes that the same kind of language should be used in all activities. Frequently teachers despair because they observe certain usage habits in their classrooms and different language usage on the playground.

The modernist, however, believes that a child who varies his language in this manner has made a sound observation about language. As with clothing or manners, we

G. Robert Carlsen is Professor of English and Education and is Head of the Department of English at the University High School, State University of Iowa. Reported from The English Journal, *XLIV (September 1960), 377–86, 424.*

adjust to the situation we are in. Language habits become more relaxed in intimate circumstances and more conventionalized in formal situations.

The two viewpoints also disagree on the basic rules of the English language. For the traditionalist, the rules are absolute and unchanging. The modernist believes that there are no permanent, absolute rules for English, since it is constantly changing.

The structure of the language to the traditionalist is almost sacred and inviolate. Actually, since such a teacher is accepting pronouncements about language made 200 years ago, he is attempting to make language static and to have children learn the English language of the eighteenth century. Conversely, the modernist knows that language is constantly in the process of change. The traditionalist says that the more prevalent an error, the more reason for working on it; the modernist feels that the more prevalent a particular usage in the language of speakers and writers, the less reason there is for spending time on it.

An important area in the conflict is the opposing viewpoints about verbal knowledge of language structure. How often the traditional teacher says, "A workman must know the names and properties of his tools. Knowledge of the parts of language is necessary, since these parts are tools that are fundamental to our using the language." Thus, knowledge of the parts of speech, the parts of a sentence, the kinds of sentences, and such techniques as parsing and diagramming sentences becomes fundamental to the program of instruction.

The modernist, on the other hand, feels that even for an auto mechanic, knowing the names of his tools is not as important as learning to perform with his tools. The teacher holds, therefore, that children learn habits in language by reading, writing, speaking, and listening in situations that demand these communicative skills.

And so it goes throughout the language-arts curriculum. In the traditional program, children insert commas in a thousand sentences in workbooks. They learn to take part in discussions, presumably, by practicing on topics which are listed in a textbook chapter on discussion. And the modernist teaches from a belief that language is best taught when students are writing for a real audience and are helping their reader to understand their meaning by the use of commas. He believes discussion is best taught in situations in which it has a vital purpose for the youngsters.

The traditional teacher also believes that unless all facets of language are presented formally a child will not learn to master the language, while the modernist believes that most language habits are learned by imitating the language of the people with whom one associates. In practice, the traditional programs stress reading and writing, the two least used of the language arts. The modernist feels that the basic forms are oral, and he increasingly stresses oral communication. Writing is not forgotten in the modern program, but the modernist believes the chance is greater that instruction in oral skills will transfer to proficiency in written skills rather than the reverse.

LITERATURE

In the area of literature, the lines of divergence are drawn sharply. The traditionalist believes that there is a clearly-defined line between great literature with a capital *L* and other kinds of writing. The modernist contends that there is a continuum between the poorest and the best in literature.

The traditionalist constantly questions reading, "But is it literature?" In some periods, the whole body of American writing has been dismissed with this statement, and today most of the books written for adolescents are similarly treated. The modernist, on the other hand, feels that attempts to evoke a situation through writing are literature, though the degree of writing success may vary tremendously. Further, the modernist assumes that what is significant varies for each reader in terms of his sex, age, background of experience, and his needs of the moment.

Believing that children will never find and read the great monuments of literature unless the school teaches these great works, the traditional approach is to expose children only to the best in literature so that they will come to prize it. And the modernist teaches with the belief that if the schools develop an interest in reading, even though it is through using second-rate materials, that interest will later lead the reader to many of the great works when he has the ability and maturity to read them.

In order to sharpen the distinctions between the traditionalist and the modernist, I have stated the extremes in points of view. Obviously the programs effected in the classroom and the methodology employed by these two schools of thought differ radically. Many teachers suggest that we take a middle ground, that we use in our instruction both points of view. This develops an eclecticism in teaching that is inclined to leave a program rudderless, for the direction of the instruction swings between two poles and only confusion results.

It is possible, of course, that a new synthesis can take place that will transcend either of the present points of view. But for the present we have the two differing beliefs: The traditionalist seems to subscribe basically to the concept of language as a skill, while the modernist's viewpoint is implied in the concept of teaching the language arts as art. To teach a skill is to teach—from the outside—something relatively mechanical. To teach an art is to develop—from the inside—something deeply personal. •

★ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Election Returns.—The election of John F. Kennedy has brought elation to the National Education Association; uncertainty about its future to the Office of Education; and to the American Council on Education—a chance for getting a former Cabinet member as its next chief administrator.

The NEA is happy about the Kennedy victory because the winner has been a consistent supporter of federal aid to education. The Office of Education is concerned about its future because the Democratic sweep means that the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare and the U.S. Commissioner of Education will be replaced. Both are Eisenhower appointees. And while it is uncertain where Commissioner Lawrence Derthick will go from his post as top federal education officer, there are indications that Secretary Flemming may become the next president of the American Council on Education, succeeding Dr. Arthur S. Adams, who has retired.

The Big Question.—The big post-election question occupying Washington's education leaders is: What does the new regime mean for education as a whole?

The Democratic Party and Mr. Kennedy promised more action on behalf of education than did Mr. Nixon and his Republican Party. The victor's list of promises and pledges is long and will be both difficult and costly to fulfill. It includes such diverse programs as federal grants for school construction, teachers' pay, adult education, educational television, college housing, technician training, library services, fellowships, scholarships, loans for needy college students, vocational education (more liberal grants), a Youth Corps, and a Peace Corps.

While few in Washington doubt the President-elect's sincerity in wanting to see his promises carried out, they doubt whether he will be able to get Congressional approval for all his plans.

The bold Kennedy program, observers believe, might run into trouble in the House of Representatives. The Democratic majority in that chamber has been reduced by 20 seats. In addition, quite a few Northern liberals have not been returned to Congress, while the conservative Southerners retain the key positions they held during the past decade when all efforts to pass federal aid to education were blocked.

Nevertheless, educators expect that Kennedy during his administration may be able to push through the following:

√ A broad federal-aid-to-education bill, leaving the states free to establish priorities between teachers' salaries and school construction.

√ Continuation and expansion of the National Defense Education Act, with the addition of scholarships for needy, qualified students, graduate and undergraduate.

√ Continuation of the college housing loan program, including loans and matching grants for dormitory facilities, classrooms, libraries, and laboratories.

√ A peace corps of young college graduates to work as technicians in underdeveloped countries. Such service probable would be an alternative to the military draft.

Federal-Aid Prospects. – Questions involving cost, religion, and segregation have generated opposition to many a federal-aid-to-education bill in recent times. How will the Kennedy administration meet these?

Observers in Washington believe that the new administration is better prepared to meet these historic obstacles than any previous regime. Part of the reason lies with the Kennedy personality; part with the temper of the times; part with the turns of political fortune.

Take first the claim that federal aid to education can become so costly the nation will not be able to afford it. To this, Mr. Kennedy is apt to reply that our affluent society must invest its growing wealth not in more goods but in an expansion of public services. The President-elect holds to the theory that our gross national product will grow and grow. One way to keep it growing is to invest in public service that portion which we do not require for food and shelter and material needs. The most important of these services are education and research.

Federal-aid bills have frequently foundered on the question of aid for private and Catholic schools. Mr. Kennedy is opposed to the use of public funds for church schools. His views should be strong enough to keep the religious question out of federal-aid-to-education debates.

Segregation has also proved a trap for federal-aid bills. Northern liberals fought the idea of providing federal dollars to Southern schools which practice segregation —hence the Powell amendment's troublesome and historic role in recent years. Representative Adam Clayton Powell is a Negro Democrat from New York State. He has held tenaciously to the notion that no federal appropriations should be given to states which discriminate against citizens because of color. And once the Powell amendment is attached to basic legislation, such as school measures, the Southern bloc is often successful in killing the legislation altogether.

Now comes the strange turn of political fortune.

According to the seniority system, Representative Powell will become chairman of the House Education and Labor Committee. Mr. Powell, acting on this assumption, held a news conference in which he foresaw quick action on a broad school bill to be approved by his committee. He saw no need for hearings and he hoped to have a bill reported by February 1. At that time it would go to the Rules Committee (which might or might not be reformed after January 1961). Looking even further ahead, Mr. Powell said that he planned to withhold his controversial amendment because it would give the Rules Committee an opportunity to hold up the entire legislative proposal. Powell, however, did reserve the right to offer his amendment later on the floor of the House during debate.

Textbook Publishing Trends.—Officials at the U.S. Department of Commerce are paying more than usual attention to trends in the textbook publishing industry. And for good reason.

The industry has grown so enormously that today one company does as much business in dollar volume as did all publishers combined in 1939. In that year total sales amounted to $50,000,000. Today total sales have soared to $350,000,000.

But Washington is keeping an eye on the textbook industry for two other reasons.

During the past 12 months, close to a dozen textbook publishers have been affected by the sale, merger, or consolidation of their companies. In most instances, small companies were taken over by larger, richer concerns. Others which retained their identity changes their method of financing—placing their common stock for sale for the first time.

These trends are causing greater concern among education officials than among officials watching business trends and trade practices. The changing complexion of the textbook publishing business may deeply affect the quality of teaching and learning in the nation's classrooms.

On the one hand, large and well-financed publishing houses are a good thing, making possible solid writing, generous illustrations, and authoritative information.

On the other hand, heavy investment calls for nation-wide sales and "bland subject-matter presentation" in order to offend the smallest possible number of potential book-buying school districts.

It is this blandness which gives rise to concern. Traditionally, publishing has been carried on by family-owned enterprises in which the owners took a personal interest in their authors and editors. They took chances and provided variety, being accountable only to themselves and the co-owners they knew personally and intimately.

The public sale of textbook shares means that management must become more profit-minded. This calls for large sales and the application of mass-marketing principles. It may mean the neglect of good authors with strong points of view.

Higher Education Is Not Cheap.—Higher education appropriate to the times can never be cheap. It will become more expensive.

This is the reply of the American Council on Education to those pressure groups calling for "greater economy" in operating colleges and universities and to those who believe we can provide higher education for large numbers of people on a bargain-basement plan.

The Council's statement was framed by its committee on problems and policies, headed by Nathan M. Pusey, Harvard president. Its other 12 members are mostly university presidents. Although the policy statement deals exclusively with the economics of higher education, it is couched in such general terms that not a dollar sign appears in the entire text.

The signers of the statement point out, however, that we invest only a tiny fraction of our national income in higher education—about 1 percent. We must raise that figure, the statement argues.

Mr. Pusey and his group then react to a few of the assorted charges made against the administration of higher education.

Charge 1: "Colleges and universities should operate more efficiently." The Pusey committee agreed, but added: "Educational institutions do not produce standardized products and it is a mistake to impose common denominators of accounting on them."

Charge 2: "Campus buildings are too elaborate. Some college facilities are simply luxuries."

Said the policy statement: "Part of education's task is to provide an environment in which young people may become more sensitive to truth and beauty. The esthetic appreciations to be drawn from great literature, from conversation and lectures, from experiencing various art forms, and from living among well-designed buildings are important."

Charge 3: "Higher education indulges in too many wasteful practices."

Those critics who make the "wasteful" charge have in mind reputedly high salaries for some professors and richly endowed libraries or laboratories. But Mr. Pusey and his group focus their attention on two other types of waste. Says the statement: "A great waste in higher education comes from the unnecessary duplication of programs, both among and within institutions."

Wasted opportunity is another great loss in higher education, the policy statement insists. "Sometimes this results from poor teaching; sometimes, from inadequate student response. Both the incompetent, indifferent, or inept teacher and the poorly motivated or misplaced student have much to answer for here."

Colleges and universities should examine the ways in which they are utilizing personnel, facilities and space. But such an examination, while eliminating some wasteful practices, will inevitably call for an increased investment, the statement concludes.

Educational News

Changes in Superintendencies:

Medford, Mass.: **John Houston,** formerly assistant superintendent at Quincy, Mass., has succeeded **Bertrand Hooper,** retired.

Saratoga Springs, N.Y.: **Byron Evans,** formerly assistant superintendent, Highland Park, Mich., has succeeded **Claude Van Wie,** resigned.

Canton, Ohio: **Gordon C. Humbert,** formerly of Lima, Ohio, is now superintendent.

Urbana, Ill.: **James H. Cherry,** formerly assistant superintendent at Joliet, Ill., is now superintendent.

Portland, Ore.: **J. W. Edwards,** superintendent since 1953, has announced his retirement, effective July 31.

Appleton, Wis.: **Royce E. Kurtz,** now superintendent, Greencastle, Ind., has been named superintendent, effective Jan. 15.

Rutherford, N.J.: **David J. Brittain,** formerly administrative assistant, is now superintendent.

College Presidents:

Western State College of Colorado, Gunnison: **Grant Venn,** formerly superintendent, Corning, N.Y., has succeeded **Peter P. Mickelson** as president.

Olympic College, Bremerton, Wash.: **J. D. Park,** formerly dean of education, Georgia Southern College, is now president.

Central State College, Edmond, Colo.: **Garland Godfrey,** formerly superintendent, Durant, Okla., has assumed the presidency.

Teacher-Training Institutions:

University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill: **E. C. Merrill,** formerly of the University of Rochester, N.Y., is now professor of education and head of the program for training school administrators.

Indiana University, Bloomington: **Lorin A. Burt,** formerly superintendent, Kendallville, is now on the school of education faculty and executive secretary of the Indiana School Boards Association.

University of Denver, Colo.: **Ralph A. Forsythe,** formerly superintendent, Riverton, Wyo., is a new member of the college of education faculty.

Northern Illinois University, De Kalb.: **Robert Gourley,** formerly superintendent, Leaf River, Ill., has been named assistant professor of education.

Other Changes and Appointments:

Woodrow W. Wilkerson, formerly Virginia state director of secondary education, has been named Virginia state superintendent of public instruction, succeeding **Davis Y. Paschall,** now president of the College of William and Mary.

J. C. Wright, superintendent of public instruction for Iowa, has resigned to direct the program of the AASA's Committee for the Advancement of School Administration.

Robert A. Finney, general manager of the Humboldt Brick & Tile Co., Kans., has been named chairman of the education committee of the U.S. Chamber of Commerce.

TV Teaching

The value of TV teaching is again emphasized in the second-year report of the National Program in the Use of Television in the Public Schools (1958-59), recently issued by The Fund for the Advancement of Education.

The test results in the new report show that 97 comparisons favor TV students, 44 favor control groups; 40 cases show significant differences in favor of TV groups, 12 in favor of control groups.

Other results reported include: TV lessons are more carefully planned than conventional lessons. More material can be covered by TV than by a teacher in a conventional classroom. With rare exceptions, discipline has not been a problem in the large classes. Students are learning at an early stage the art of taking notes and the ability to concentrate. Students have had to accept more responsibility for their own learning and have done so. And the classroom teacher, far from being relegated to a minor role, has assumed new importance.

Free Summer School

Tuition fees charged for summer school sessions in Connecticut were recently ruled to be illegal by the state's attorney general.

The attorney general declared that summer sessions are extensions of the regular public school service, and must be free.

Marion McGhehey, state school-law consultant of the U.S. Office of Education, points out that 30 states have constitutional requirements to operate free schools. Four other states, including Connecticut, require free public education by statute.

In many states, Dr. McGhehey explains, some local boards continue to charge fees unless the constitutionality of this practice is specifically challenged in a court action. The Connecticut ruling is believed to be the first to relate directly to summer sessions.

In Connecticut, indications are that special budgetary provisions will have to be made during the coming year by the legislature in order to accommodate the ever-increasing demand for summer instruction.

AASA Regionals

"Education for the Challenges of of Tomorrow" will be the theme of the regional conventions of the AASA, to be held in February and March in San Francisco, St. Louis, and Philadelphia.

A new program format will be featured at four of the seven general sessions at each regional meeting, according to Forrest E. Conner, AASA president. This format includes speaker-analyst teams who will discuss disciplines related to education, each team member looking at a particular discipline from a different angle.

The San Francisco meeting will be held Feb. 25-28; St. Louis, Mar. 11-14; and Philadelphia, Mar. 25-28.

New Organization

A new organization to discover and encourage future scientists now in high school has been announced by Robert H. Carleton, executive secretary of the National Science Teachers Association, NEA.

Known as the Future Scientists of America (FSA), the organization aims to develop a reserve of science potential. It will function as an extracurricular activity.

The Science Achievement

Awards for students, conducted by the National Science Teachers Association for the last nine years, will be an integral part of the new FSA program under the name of Future Scientists of America Awards.

Teacher Examinations

THE National Teacher Examinations, prepared and administered annually by Educational Testing Service, will be given Feb. 11, 1961, at 160 testing centers throughout the U.S.

At the one-day testing session, a candidate may take the common examinations, which include tests in professional information, general culture, English expression, and nonverbal reasoning; and one or two of 13 optional examinations, which are designed to demonstrate mastery of subject matter to be taught.

Information on the examinations may be obtained from Educational Testing Service, 20 Nassau St., Princeton, N.J.

College Teacher Preparation

A SERIES of grants to expand, speed, and improve the preparation of college teachers was recently announced by the Ford Foundation.

The grants, which totalled $2,355,000 made to 14 universities, will support a new, concerted effort to help strengthen the master's degree as a sound, qualifying degree for college teaching. The rapid expansion of college faculties is making the master's degree, rather than the Ph.D., the predominant level of preparation of most newly employed college teachers, the Foundation reports.

The Foundation also recently announced three new grants totaling $561,000 in its ongoing program aimed at a breakthrough in the preparation of elementary-school and secondary-school teachers. The grants were made to Miami University, Oxford, Ohio; Webster College, Webster Groves, Mo.; and Yale University.

School Fire Safety

"ONLY when fire safety in school gets as much attention as oversize gymnasiums, pastel colors, and other 'new look' trimmings can we expect to escape another Chicago school tragedy," Chester I. Babcock, manager of the fire record department of National Fire Protection Association, told members of the Association at its November convention in Columbus, Ohio.

Mr. Babcock pointed out that apathy seems to be settling in once more in regard to fire protection in schools. He said that there are several false assumptions current. One dangerously false assumption is that "because a school building is new, it must be safe," he said.

Another is that there are no tested and certain methods to assure safety. Three basic principles mentioned by Mr. Babcock to protect a school were: at least two safe ways out from every occupied part of the school; automatic means for prompt discovery and control of fire; and reducing to a minimum the amount of material in the building which can burn.

New Research

A TWO-YEAR research study on "The Development of Basic Attitudes and Values toward Government and Citizenship during the Elementary-School Years" has been started at the University of Chicago.

The new project, which has been approved by the U.S. Office of Education as part of its Cooperative Research Program, will receive $136,119 from the federal government for its support. The University of Chicago also will contribute.

Director of the research project will be Robert D. Hess, associate professor of human development, and David Easton, professor in the department of political science.

Closed for Jewish Holidays

NEW York City schools are officially being closed this year, for the first time, on Jewish holidays.

The action, taken by the school board on recommendation of Superintendent John J. Theobald, was not the high Jewish school population, but the large number of teachers who do not work on the high holidays.

Low-Cost Teaching Machine

TEACHING machines are very much in the educational limelight this season. One of the newest items of interest in this field is an announcement by Grolier, Inc., publisher of The Book of Knowledge and Encyclopedia Americana, that it is placing on the market a $20 device that will enable educational institutions to experiment with the new teaching technique and integrate it into their curriculum at extremely low cost.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Dec. 5-9, American Vocational Association, Los Angeles, Calif.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Jan. 9-12, White House Conference on Aging, Washington, D.C.

Feb. 11-15, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Detroit, Mich.

Feb. 22-25, American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 25-28, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, San Francisco, Calif.

Mar. 5-8, Association for Higher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 11-14, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, St. Louis, Mo.

Mar. 12-16, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 18-22, Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, Atlantic City, N.J.

Mar. 25-28, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, Philadelphia, Pa.

Mar. 25-29, National Science Teachers Association, Chicago, Ill.

April 4-7, National Catholic Educational Association, Atlantic City, N.J.

April 5-8, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Chicago, Ill.

April 16-22, National Library Week.

New Educational Materials

Anxiety in Elementary School Children. Sarason *et al.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. vi + 351. $7.75.

This book is based on the findings of a research team that spent six years intensively studying and examining anxiety in children and the effects of anxiety in test performance.

The material is not at an introductory level. It is quite technical and a minimum requirement would be familiarity with the more commonly used tests and testing procedures. The relationships and discrepancies between performance and potential, and the importance of these elements in a test-giving, test-taking culture are emphasized.

Among the major conclusions which emerge are that a child's perception of himself in relation to the testing situation affects his test performance, and that for many children a degree of anxiety is aroused which interferes with the maximum use of their potential.

The final chapter of the book contains a challenging critique of the nature and aims of the testing programs in our schools.

The Process of Education. Jerome S. Bruner. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960. Pp. xvi + 92. $2.75.

In September 1959, approximately 35 scientists, scholars, and educators assembled at Woods Hole on Cape Cod to discuss how education in science might be improved in our schools. The meeting had been called by the National Academy of Sciences.

This book grew from the discussions at Woods Hole. It is a collection of concise essays by the chairman of the conference. The conclusions presented here have meaningful material for the total curriculum.

A prominent conclusion is that children are capable of grasping the basic concepts of science and the humanities far earlier than has ever been thought possible.

The important ideas of "structure" and "intuition" and their relation to intellectual development are examined not only from a psychological point of view but also from the practical standpoint of putting together a school curriculum.

Focus on Values in Elementary Education. Laura Zirbes. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1960. Pp. xi + 238. $4.50.

This book examines the values which contribute to the quality and improvement of teaching in the elementary schools. Many classroom examples are used to illustrate the author's points and a "case-finder" appendix is employed that explores actual classroom situations.

The content concentrates on the lower grade levels of the elementary school. The book is designed for both preservice and in-service use in the problems of learning, teaching, and living in today's elementary schools.

Policies and Practices in Higher Education. Algo D. Henderson. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. xiii + 338. $5.75.

This book deals with the forces and trends affecting contemporary higher education. It is not a history of higher education, being primarily concerned with the current scene.

The author states in the preface: "I believe that our concepts of the nature and aims of higher education have been changing . . . I feel that the causes of changes and the trends of the future can be identified. To a certain extent, my intention has been to express a definite point of view about the role and the future of higher education."

In discussing the role of higher education, the author raises and answers such questions as: What should be taught? To whom? Toward what ends? How should education be financed? Should there be more discrimination in admitting students? And what is the future of the small private college?

The author, now director of the Center for the Study of Higher Education, University of Michigan, is a former president of Antioch College and has served on the President's Commission on Higher Education.

The Effective Board. Cyril O. Houle. New York: Association Press, 1960. Pp. xvii + 174. $3.50.

Noting the bewildering variety of voluntary associations—all operated by boards and involving committees—this author has prepared a text to guide boards into effective action. The material is well organized and presented in a highly readable style.

Intended to aid both the beginner and the experienced board member, the book covers board organization and operation as well as short cuts to good practice for its members and staff.

Policies for Science Education. Edited by Frederick L. Fitzpatrick. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1960. Pp. xiii + 219. $3.95.

Frederick L. Fitzpatrick is director of the Science Manpower Project at Columbia University. In 1956 (before Sputnik, the project was organized for the purpose of fostering the improvement of science education. This book, with Fitzpatrick as editor, presents the findings and recommendations of the scientists and educators who worked on the project.

The first section deals with existing problems and trends followed by a discussion of policies for providing better instruction and effective administration of science programs. The book is concerned, primarily, with science programs and instruction at the elementary, junior-high, and secondary-school levels.

One chapter is devoted to an analysis of the education of science teachers, with suggestions for changes in present practices.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

101 Science Experiments. Illa Podendorf. Chicago: Childrens Press, 1960. Pp. 157. $4.50. Experiments in the following subject areas: air, magnets, electricity, water, sound, light, simple machines, heat, chemistry, and plants.

Time Is When. Beth Youman Gleick. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1960. Pp. 40. $2.75. Answers questions on time for beginning readers.

I Want to Be an Airplane Hostess, I Want to Be a Dentist, I Want to Be a Librarian, and **I Want to Be a Cowboy.** Carla Greene. Chicago: Childrens Press, $2.00 each. For the beginning reader.

In All Our States. Paul R. Hanna, Clyde F. Kohn, and Robert A. Lively. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1960. Pp. 288. $3.32. Grade 4 in the Basic Social Studies Program series. Teacher's edition includes a 208-page guidebook.

Heroes of the Western Outposts, Settlers on a Strange Shore, Men on Iron Horses, and **Explorers in a New World.** Edith McCall. Chicago: Childrens Press, Inc., 1960. Pp. 128 each. $2.50 each. New titles in the Frontiers of America series.

Sir Isaac Newton. W. Robert Houston and M. Vere DeVault. Austin, Tex.: The Steck Company, 1960. Pp. 44. $1.75. For ages 8-12.

The True Book of Animal Homes and The True Book of Plant Experiments. Illa Podendorf. Chicago: Childrens Press, 1960. Pp. 48. $2.00 each.

Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials. (Seventeenth Edition.) Edited by Patricia H. Suttles. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1960. Pp. xiv + 345. $7.50.

SECONDARY

People to Remember. Adapted by Gertrude Moderow. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1960. Pp. 296. Contains 16 biographical sketches with discussion questions. Teen-age interest level written at fourth- and fifth-grade reading level.

Story of Nations. Lester B. Rogers, Fay Adams, and Walker Brown. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiii + 802. $5.56. A well-illustrated history textbook.

Past to Present; A World History. Sydney H. Zebel and Sidney Schwartz. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960. Pp. xii + 708.

Supplementary Units in Contemporary Arithmetic and Elementary Algebra. Edwin I. Stein. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. 75. $1.50, paperbound.

Modern Physics. Charles E. Dull, H. Clark Metcalfe, and John E. Williams. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 662. $4.96. Well-illustrated text.

Things to Do in Science and Conservation. Byron L. Ashbaugh and Muriel Beuschlein. Danville, Ill.: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 163. $2.50.

World Geography Today. Saul Israel, Norma H. Roemer, and Loyal Durand, Jr. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960. Pp. vii + 536. $5.56. A survey of human geography as well as physical geography.

Springboard to Journalism; A Study Guide in School Newspaper Practices. Edited by Benjamin W. Allnutt. New York: Columbia Scholastic Press Advisers Association, Columbia University, 1960. Pp. 88. $3.00.

COLLEGE

The National Defense Student Loan Program; Basic Facts. U.S. Office of Education Pamphlet 55009. Pp. 11. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. $.10.

Faith and Learning. Alexander Miller. New York: Association Press, 1960. Pp. 218. $3.50. Christian faith and higher education in America today.

Basic Materials for Florida Junior College Libraries. Edited by Louis Shores and Sarah Reed. Bulletin 22CJC-1, "Reference Books," Pp. 22; Bulletin 22CJC-2, "Magazines," Pp. 40. Available from Florida State Department of Education, Tallahassee. $1.00, each.

The Federal Government and Higher Education. Edited by Douglas M. Knight. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 203. $3.50, cloth; $1.95, paperbound.

GUIDANCE

Jobs and Futures in Mental Health Work. Elizabeth Ogg. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1960. Pp. 28. $.25. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 296.

Television and Radio News. Bob Siller, Ted White, and Hal Terkel. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960. Pp. 227. $5.95.

GENERAL

Russian - English, English - Russian Dictionary. Edited by O. S. Akhmanova. Baltimore, Md.: Ottenheimer Publishers, Inc., 1960. Pp. 569. $4.95, thumb indexed; $3.95, plain.

Research Relating to Mentally Retarded Children. Washington, D.C.:

U.S. Children's Bureau, 1960. Pp. 92. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. $.35.

The Statesman's Year-Book, 1960-61. Edited by S. H. Steinberg. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1960. Pp. xxvi + 1677. $9.50.

Pronunciation Facilities of English Words. Edited by William Grossman. Passaic, N.J.: Language Publication Society, 1960. Pp. 88.

The Story of Language. Mario Pei. New York: The New American Library, 1960. Pp. 431. $.75. A new Mentor book.

Annotated Bibliography of Materials in Economic Education, 1960-61. Available from Joint Council on Economic Education, 2 W. 46th St., New York, N.Y. Pp. 52. $.50.

Understanding and Teaching the Dependent Retarded Child. Louis E. Rosenzweig and Julia Long. Darien, Conn.: The Educational Publishing Corp., 1960. Pp. 185. $4.25.

The Countdown on Segregated Education. Edited by William W. Brickman and Stanley Lehrer. New York: Society for the Advancement of Education, 1960. Pp. 170. $3.50, cloth; $2.25, paperbound.

Understanding the U.S.S.R.; A History of Russia and the U.S.S.R. New York: Collier's Encyclopedia, 1960. Pp. 24. $.25. A teaching aid.

Schools in Our Democracy. Lawrence G. Derthick. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1960. Pp. 28. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. $.15; discounts in quantity.

AUDIO-VISUALS

Educators Guide to Free Films and Educators Guide to Free Filmstrips. (Twelfth Editions.) Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1960. Pp. xi + 639 and ix + 163. $9.00 and $6.00, respectively.

100 Selected Films in Economic Education. New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1960. Pp. 34. $.75.

READER INFORMATION SERVICE

Send in this coupon to get additional information easily and quickly from the advertisers in this issue and about the materials listed in "New Educational Materials."

☐ **Prakken Publications**

I would also like more information on the following books and other materials listed in this issue:

....

....

Name .... **Position** ....

Address D-60

Bureau of Educational and Psychological Research, Govt. of W. Bengal, Library, Calcutta-19

A CAREER IN TEACHING
EDUCATION DIGEST
COOKIE JAR
Bill O'Malley

BOOKS, BOOKLETS, AND CHARTS
For Your Industrial-Education Department

Modern School Shop Planning

The only book on the market that completely covers the planning problems of school shops—equipment lists, safety factors, principles of purchasing, standards, suggested shop layouts, etc.

184 Pages **$3.85**

Machinists' Ready Reference

Compiled by C. Weingartner. Contains 100 of the most used tables and charts. Pocket-sized. The handiest, neatest machinists' handbook yet devised. Well indexed. $1.50

Diamond Dust

By Tom Diamond. A collection of tongue-in-cheek articles emphasizing practical pedagogical points. Light reading-with-a-purpose. 112 pages. $2.00

Campbell's Drafting Time Savers

"Machine Drafting Data," a four-page quick-reference chart. "The Dimensioning of Machine Drawings," a 20-page booklet giving information on rules of dimensioning.

$1.00 each item for 1-5 copies; $.85 each, 6-10 copies; $.75 each, 11-50 copies; $.60 each, 51 or more copies.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

On-approval copies of these publications available to administrators and supervisors for 10-day examination.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

330 Thompson Street
Ann Arbor, Michigan

The EDUCATION DIGEST

CONTENTS

Seven Additional Battles for Public Schools School and Society 1
Scholastic Ghostwriting . . . Higher Education 5
What Price Pressures? . . Childhood Education 8
Language Laboratories
Language Labs: Agonizing Reappraisal Overview 11
How to Use the Language Lab California Department of Education Bulletin 14
Another Look at the Conant Report NASSP Bulletin 16
Continental Classroom . . . . NAEB Journal 19
nherent Human Worth . . . . Social Studies 22
Teachers Must Discipline Their Colleagues Phi Delta Kappan 26
Blessed Is the Nonconformist College and University 29
What Goes on in the School Library? California Journal of Elementary Education 32
Why Educate the Mentally Handicapped? Michigan Education Journal 35
High-School Dramatics . . The Clearing House 38
A Safe Environment for Learning . NEA Journal 40
Graduate Education Carnegie Corporation Quarterly 42
ngraded Primary Reading Program The Elementary School Journal 45
eachers College Standards in Chemistry Science Education 48
esearch in Teaching Grammar and Usage Indiana U. School of Education Bulletin 50
Education in Washington 53
ucational News 57
ew Educational Materials 61

LIBRARY

THE EDUCATION DIGEST STAFF

LAWRENCE W. PRAKKEN, Editor and Publisher
JEROME C. PATTERSON, Managing Editor
WARREN R. GOOD, Associate Editor
OLIVER E. HANNINEN, Assistant Editor
BURLEY L. HENDRICKS, Assistant Editor
BARBARA N. LEAKE, Circulation Manager

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

THOMAS D. BAILEY, Superintendent, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida
NATT B. BURBANK, Superintendent of Schools, Boulder, Colorado
JOHN S. CARTWRIGHT, Superintendent of Schools, Allentown, Pennsylvania
ARTHUR F. COREY, Executive Secretary, California Teachers Association, Burlingame
LYMAN V. GINGER, Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington
PHILIP J. HICKEY, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis, Missouri
HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, Chief, Elementary Schools Section, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
L. S. MICHAEL, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois
FRED RAUBINGER, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey
JAMES E. RUSSELL, Secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.
GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Principal, The Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut
RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington
DONALD E. TOPE, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene
HENRY I. WILLETT, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

MEMBER OF

EDUCATIONAL
PRESS
ASSOCIATION
OF
AMERICA

Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., Lexington 2-0020. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 1025 Harlem Ave., Glenview, Ill., PArk 4-0800. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 711 S. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1961 by Lawrence W. Prakken

Volume XXVI — JANUARY 1961 — Number 5

To Guarantee the Victory We Thought Was Ours

Seven Additional Battles for Public Schools

WILLIAM MARSHALL FRENCH

In School and Society

A SERIES of battles has been fought and won to establish and extend the public-school system of the United States. There were battles for tax support to eliminate the pauper-school idea, to make the schools entirely free, to establish state supervision, to eliminate sectarianism, and to extend the system through the secondary school. Today there is evidence that new battles will need to be fought to make certain that the victory we thought was ours is really guaranteed.

The attempt to defend and perpetuate the present school system might well be presented as such additional battles as: to keep the schools nonsectarian, to assure the responsible teacher his professional freedom, to achieve adequate financial support, to assure every child the educational opportunity he merits, to defend the public school from fragmentation and against segregation, and to secure an adequate supply of competent teachers.

William Marshall French is a member of the faculty at Muhlenberg College, Allentown, Pa. Reported from School and Society, *LXXXVIII (October 8, 1960), 343–46.*

One issue in today's battle for nonsectarian schools is the increasing criticism of the public schools for the alleged and probably real increase in the amount of juvenile delinquency. Critics prescribe either abandonment of the public schools in favor of parochial institutions or the injection of religion into public schools. In some religious quarters, nonsectarian schools are called secular schools and secularism is equated to hostility of religion. Both Roman Catholic and Protestant writers have made such statements. Public schools should reject the appellation "secular" and should insist on the term "public" or "nonsectarian." The opponents who use "secular" will persist, if they can, to equate "secular" to "antireligious" on the theory that "if you are not for me, you must be against me."

Wisely so, most state constitutions or fundamental school laws strictly forbid sectarianism in the public schools. While such provisions are unwisely used to emasculate the schools in certain instances by giving warrant for the removal of all library or curricular materials to which any minority might object, the prohibition against sectarianism is fundamentally sound and should be preserved.

PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM

The revolutionary age in which we live, with its concomitant welter of opinion and the newer techniques of teaching, has raised the question of the teacher's freedom and responsibility. Substantial organizations and individuals with a stake in the *status quo*, as well as reactionary groups which seem motivated primarily by blind hatred for any type of social progress and taxation, are prone to scrutinize the public schools, their curriculums, their textbooks, and their products. Such scrutiny is part of the American tradition, and schools ought not to object to an honest appraisal.

However, by taking statements from their context and stringing them together into a predetermined pattern, one can "prove" that textbook writers are Socialists or Communists. It is a technique used in condemnatory bulletins sent to the most reactionary groups in typical American communities. Where successful, it has resulted in the elimination of textbooks and subtle pressures on teachers to bow to the local power. Carried to a logical conclusion, this technique will result in the teacher's being the "kept" mouthpiece of the dominant prejudices of the community in which he teaches.

The teacher must be free to teach truth even if it runs counter to the lowest common denominator of local prejudices. For this reason, tenure for teachers is an important rampart in the battle. Though much can be said against tenure, it is a bulwark to assure the responsible teacher that he may teach controversial subjects without daily taking the pulse of the community. Defense of academic freedom in our colleges and universities is related to this issue in the public schools, for, if the collegiate battlements fall, there will be no way of winning the battle on the lower levels.

In their demands for adequate financial support, the schools are in active competition for the tax dollar. National defense and an extended program of social welfare are major competitors. It is fortunate at this juncture that generally the public-school districts operate in fiscal independence of other governmental agencies. This fiscal independence is a great heritage from the past and must be preserved, for it is generally true that schools receive greater financial support through this method than if they were in direct competition with other agencies receiving funds from a general municipal treasury.

The struggle to obtain adequate school funds will long continue. The tremendous expansion in the number of elementary-school pupils seems likely to continue, and the problem will be further complicated as these students move upward through the secondary grades. The new techniques of teaching and the community's demand that the school shall be responsible for more educational and related activities will make the schools more expensive. This means that there must be higher rates within the present tax structure or a new source of tax revenue must be tapped.

The issue of federal aid is destined to be fought again and again. The well-known arguments for and against will be repeated. These issues at present cut through the various social, economic, and political strata of society, but will be determined largely by one's stand on the issue of equality of educational opportunity versus "creeping socialism." It should be noted that certain national figures who stand for a high degree of rugged individualism favor, for the welfare of the nation, federal aid to the schools. A notable example is the late Senator Robert Taft of Ohio, at once the rallying center of conservative Republicans and the coauthor of a federal-aid bill.

EDUCATION FOR ALL

Another battle area is the school's attempts to provide an education for every child in keeping with his interests, abilities, and prospective place in society. As far as the public is concerned, the struggle revolves around such issues as funds for new and enlarged schools, a wider curriculum, and more adequate guidance in educational, vocational, and social spheres. Within the profession, the debate largely concerns the philosophy of education and the curriculum, with major emphasis on curriculum reform.

While the schools have subscribed to the psychological principle of individual differences, the burgeoning school population has forced a higher degree of lockstep, institutionalized procedures than they wish to assume.

As the enrolments in classrooms advance from 25 to 35 and to 45, the pupils will be short-changed as far as attention to their peculiar strengths and weaknesses is concerned. Increasingly, parents are alarmed about the teacher-pupil ratio. Some parents, ideologically committed to the public-school idea in theory, are withdrawing their children from public schools to send them to private institutions where the teacher-pupil ratio is more favorable. And when their children leave the public schools, the interests of their parents go with them.

Somehow, the professional leaders and teachers must work out a system whereby every child may get an education appropriate to his abilities, interests, and needs. This is a stupendous task. But an alert public has the right to insist that it be done.

Any influence which causes any appreciable number of school children to leave the public schools leads to fragmentation. If the trend to private schools persists, we may be back again to a two-track system, whereby ordinary schools will be provided for the "lower" classes and the "upper" classes are privileged to purchase a superior education for their children.

Two other areas presenting danger of fragmentation to the public schools are the possibilities of extending federal aid to private schools, and the threat of some Southern states to abolish their public schools rather than permit integration.

If federal or state aid is ever made available to church schools or private schools, these institutions will grow in number and size. Not only will Roman Catholic and Missouri Lutheran Church schools apply for their share of the funds; other religious bodies which have long been committed to the public-school ideal will establish, in some instances at least, their own schools and seek to share in the distribution.

Currently, the most publicized struggle in public-school education evolves from the Supreme Court decision that segregated schools are unconstitutional. There will be a long struggle to implement this principle. The remarkable fact is the steps taken in so many communities which anticipated the decision or hastened to comply. The few sore spots that attracted national attention are not phenomenal; the phenomenal fact is that in so many communities the adjustment was made graciously and without incident. It remains to be seen what further implementation of the Court's decision will bring; it is to be hoped that the counsel of acceptance will prevail.

In our own decade, the battle for an adequate supply of competent teachers has centered on salary schedules and recruitment. The basic fact is that America never has had enough first-rate teachers and has no prospect of achieving such a goal in the discernible future. One cannot hold out the prospect of every student having a thoroughly prepared, well-adjusted teacher who will create favorable learning situations. It is possible, however, to warn that the battle can be lost unless America is willing to make teaching more attractive in matters of salary, working conditions, and community attitudes. •

A Small-Sized School Battle

THE children were in the midst of a free-for-all when the teacher entered the room. "Who started this?" she asked. Tommy replied, "Well, it all started when Albert hit me back."—From *The Educational Courier*.

Report of New York Grand Jury

Scholastic Ghostwriting

In Higher Education

THIS is a condensed verbatim report of the fourth March 1960 Grand Jury, Court of General Sessions, New York County, which investigated scholastic ghostwriting in New York.

Evidence has been presented to this grand jury which has provided the shocking disclosure that scholastic "ghostwriting" has been a widespread practice for more than two decades. There is a clear indication that hundreds of students throughout the country have obtained this dishonest kind of assistance during the past few years.

There is a disturbing emphasis on the acquisition of the indicia of learning, rather than on learning itself. In many instances, it appears that the college degree is sought solely for its material value. So important are the letters B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. in the enhancement of social prestige, in the attainment of more desirable employment, and in the securing of additional monetary advantage in the academic and business worlds, that students, the evidence shows, have resorted to unethical, immoral, and illegal means in order to achieve their purposes.

Students, who, for a variety of reasons, were unable to meet the requirements of these coveted degrees, have anxiously searched the classified sections of the Sunday newspapers, the pages of the classified telephone books, and other sources to which they were referred by fellow students in the desperate hope of solving their problems. From one or another of these sources the not-so-secret knowledge has been obtained that "ghostwriting" agencies have been available to provide book reports, term papers, master theses, and doctoral dissertations on any subject, and, in dire emergencies, even a substitute to take an examination.

Reported from Higher Education, *published by U.S. Office of Education, XVII (September 1960), 7–10.*

The excuses advanced by students for seeking such dishonorable assistance are many and varied, including: ill-health, emotional problems, marital discord, lack of time due to employment, inability to do research work, inability to write English, and just plain laziness. Hence, the literary "ghost" has become the refuge of the student who is either unable or unwilling to meet academic requirements. This rush to literary agencies has been somewhat slowed only by the prospective client's bankbook.

Testimony has revealed that, for

the most part, standard rates were charged by these "ghostwriting" agencies for the researching and writing of scholastic material. The prevailing prices were largely dependent on the number of words and pages desired, the number of typewritten copies requested, and the comparative difficulty inherent in adhering to prescribed forms for tables of contents, footnotes, and bibliographies. The uniqueness of the topic and the prospective difficulty in obtaining source material were seldom cited as factors determinative of price. In other words, price was determined on essentially a quantum basis, rather than a qualitative basis. Rates ranged from $12.50 for a four-page or five-page term paper on a high-school or college level to $3,000 for a complete and ultimately acceptable dissertation for Ph.D. degree.

Oddly enough, seldom was value given for value received, and a mark of "C" was almost the standard grade received by those students submitting the "ghosted" literature. This is quite understandable in view of the almost assembly-line-like process by which the "ghosted" productions were turned out, and by the frequent re-use of previously completed work.

Students availing themselves of the aforementioned services were not found to be concentrated in any particular city. On the contrary, the evidence before the grand jury demonstrated graphically that the clientele of many agencies was spread throughout the length and breadth of the country, and even included students attending schools in foreign countries. Some students were able to keep their identities hidden by the use of fictitious names and addresses—a convincing demonstration of a consciousness of guilt. In some instances, however, their identities have been established.

Statistically, the bulk of the work performed by most of the agencies under investigation was shown to be on a mail-order basis for students outside the confines of the New York metropolitan area. This was made possible by nationwide advertising. Only in this manner could such agencies attract the majority, and often the most affluent, of their student-clients. This type of advertising has conveyed in all probability the false impression, particularly to students with borderline integrity, that there was nothing morally improper in having a term paper or thesis "ghosted."

The members of the grand jury were amazed to discover that a substantial number of the witnesses who appeared before them were school teachers on elementary and high-school levels, who admitted having used these agencies for the writing of their course papers, theses, and dissertations. Their primary reason for resorting to such practices was to qualify for a salary increment, which could be received only on their attaining a certain number of advanced course credits.

Another small but even more startling category of clients was the parents of students who actually purchased from these agencies the term papers, book reports, and essays required by their offspring for their high-school or college courses.

RATIONALIZATIONS

It is interesting to note some of the rationalizations provided by witnesses before this grand jury for their use of "ghostwriting." Some students have suggested that publicly acknowledged recourse to "ghostwriting" in virtually every field of human endeavor has had the effect of lessening, if not eliminating, the stigma of impropriety that normally would attach to a dishonest practice of this kind. Others have voiced the opinion that increased competition for admission to colleges, graduate, and professional schools has placed a disproportionate reliance by such schools on high scholastic averages, causing the weaker students to seek outside professional help. Certain students maintained that a lack of adequate preparation in the fundamentals required for advanced courses, particularly the writing of English, made it imperative that they rely on the services of the professional "ghostwriter." Still others have stated that overcrowded classrooms, producing a lack of rapport between students and teacher, have encouraged the use of "ghostwriters," particularly since under the circumstances it has been a relatively safe device.

The grand jury believes that the educational authorities should adopt positive, direct, and aggressive measures to combat dishonesty in our educational institutions. Accordingly, the grand jury makes the following recommendations:

1. The state department of education should conduct continuing confidential investigation of all "ghostwriting" agencies. On finding any such agency actively engaged in scholastic "ghostwriting" in violation of the education law, such information immediately should be forwarded to the proper district attorney's office for appropriate action.

2. All newspapers – collegiate, local, city-wide, and national in scope–and publishers of classified telephone directories should more carefully screen, for possible legal violations, all advertising pertaining to "ghostwriting" services.

3. A comprehensive study should be made, by the appropriate educational authorities, of the various aspects of the problems involving scholastic dishonesty, some of which have been suggested by the testimony adduced before this grand jury. The primary purpose of such a study would be to evolve corrective measures which would have the salutary effect of minimizing, if not eliminating, the conditions that have encouraged resort to professional "ghostwriting" in educational institutions. •

The Child Has Them, Too

What Price Pressures?

GLADYS GARDNER JENKINS
In Childhood Education

WHEREVER we go in the world we hear talk about pressures that grownups are under. At the very time we bemoan pressures that bedevil us, we do not seem to be fully aware of the pressures we are "pushing" on boys and girls: pressures to behave in a socialized way; to be popular—to belong to the group; to achieve in school; to hold their own in a competitive world; to take advantage of all the advantages; to live in a world which even grownups cannot say is safe and secure.

As if these pressures were not enough for our children to face, many adults are adding to pressures in the name of education: We must "toughen up" the curriculum. There must be more homework. We must do away with frills. Children must work harder. They must stay in school longer hours. These are a few of the clichés that keep cropping out in articles, reports, speeches, and everyday conversation.

These clichés are often used by adults who want their children to have the kind of education which will help prepare them to become creative, constructive citizens. Furthermore, they are often used by adults who understand the seriousness of our times and are sincere in their efforts "to do right by our children." Their motivation is right, their realization for the need of intelligent and productive manpower is right, but their knowledge of children and how they will grow and develop is inadequate.

Gladys Gardner Jenkins is Lecturer, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. Reported from Childhood Education, *published by the Association for Childhood Education International, Washington, D.C., XXXVII (October 1960), 53–56.*

We hear the voices of boys and girls: "I don't want to be in the honors program, I'm afraid I can't carry it." "I can't go to bed yet, my homework isn't done."

When we add to these voices reports from school principals and counselors of mounting tensions in children and the concern in one school system for the many kindergarten children already on tranquilizers, we realize the problem of pressure is mounting and cannot be ignored. We are beginning to ask, "What price pressure?"

We know that neither we nor our children can escape from all pressures, and that it might not be desirable if we could. A certain degree of pressure will act as a driving force, prompting the desire to finish a job, to go on to the next step, to learn to read the next word. But there are differences between useful and destructive pressures. If we are to aid our children in learning to live successfully with their pressures, we must understand those differences and their relationships to learning.

Constructive pressures are closely allied with other parts of learning: motivation and reward of satisfaction through achievement. If conditions are not favorable for success and the rewards of achievement, increased pressure may result only in producing an attitude of distress and defeat toward learning tasks. A first-grade pupil who has handled books, turning the pages and looking at illustrations, during preschool years may respond favorably to pressure applied by teacher and parents to figure out the meanings of the words. Such a pupil will find delight and pleasure in learning to read. Another pupil who has not had the experience of handling and examining books may not respond so favorably to pressure from teacher and parents; he may picture himself as inadequate and a disappointment to himself, his parents, and the teacher.

Pressure applied as pressure alone will almost always fail. Parents who nag a child to do better—without understanding why he is not making progress—may end up with an underachiever. Pressures may be positive if they are combined with motivation which arouses curiosity and interest and makes the child want to exert pressure from within himself to accomplish what he is eager and able to do. External pressure is of little value. Motivation toward inducing inner pressure is much more effective and infinitely less in danger of backfiring. Here again, we must be sure that the motivation is toward a goal that is possible to achieve.

When we speak of "toughening up the curriculum," we must ask, "How? For whom?" A curriculum "toughened up" to provide stimulus for the out-reaching mind (college-bound child) may have serious repercussions with children whose goals should be in a different direction. Stiffer standards with stiffer exams may result in pressure situations which have an array of undesirable outcomes trailing behind. The under-achiever is often a child who has pulled out of a race for which he was basically well equipped—he has quit because pressures to succeed have been too heavy.

Cheating increases in proportion to the emphasis put on a goal beyond the reach of many children who compete *not* because of personal desire and motivations but because of a situation from which there is no other escape. An adult may press on in the face of difficulties and discouragements because he sees possible results and meanings which will lead to achievement of future goals. But the child's goal is immediate. His goal is not the career for which his parents would like him to prepare. When the going gets tough for a child, the motivation must have immediate childlike satisfactions and meaning. He must feel the inner drive to press on rather than turning toward goals which have less meaning and less immediacy.

Intensity and kind are two things to remember about pressure. An intense pressure is never justified unless it is in an emergency situation and the child's safety is involved. It is never desirable in a classroom learning situation. As for the use of pressure in the classroom, positive pressure, with its reward of success and satisfaction resulting from achievement, brings the best results. Negative pressures (lack of reward, punishment, etc.) may sometimes be used and are occasionally necessary. But if continually surrounded with negative pressures, a child will either withdraw into himself or hit back.

Negative pressures are often used carelessly by those who fail to reach a child through understanding and insight and to find the real causes for lack of success. A parent or teacher's disappointed look, his tight lip over the report card, his sarcastic and undermining remark, his comparison of a child with brothers, sisters, or other children in an attempt to shame him into doing better are negative pressures. They can undermine a child's faith in himself.

If we want children to be creative, pressure is not the answer. Creativity rarely develops from outward pressure. It may come from the inner pressure of ideas which flow into the mind and demand a way of expression. We can create an atmosphere in which this can happen. A child who feels comfortable with his parents and teachers—who finds it is safe to ask questions, express ideas, try doing things even if he makes mistakes—responds to pressures within himself by carrying through to a successful performance. The child who is told to create may stare at a piece of paper, a hunk of clay, or the makings of a science project and leave the paper blank or the material untouched—and his mind may be filled with ideas.

We hear it said, "Children must get used to being under pressure." The truth is: No one is more used to being under pressure than the utterly defeated child. What children need is to be helped to respond constructively to pressure. They cannot do this if they are pushed beyond their depth, and they are not likely to do this if they *think* they are beyond their depth.

It is not increased pressure applied to children that is needed but better positive motivation. Rather than add to outward pressures on boys and girls, we need to release them whenever possible. Our children today are in danger of losing the necessary growing years—growing years at a child's pace—because of pressures to grow at an adult's pace. •

Should Be Used for
More than Languages

Language Labs: An Agonizing Reappraisal

In Overview

UNDOUBTEDLY one of the most exciting developments in the field of education equipment has been the arrival of so-called "language laboratories." They've been with us for several years in experimental form, but—as the recent National Audio-Visual Association convention clearly proved—language labs are apparently out of the experimental stage as far as the manufacturers are concerned. These companies are all tooled up for volume production and are ready to enter a lively competitive market.

On the surface, this would seem to be all to the good. Two elements here—an electromechanical breakthrough and competitive sales—cannot but benefit education generally. It happened with projection equipment, typewriters, and disc and tape recording equipment. Now we see it happening again with a total electromechanical package, the language lab. And, as with other equipment breakthroughs, this one is also fraught with complications, subtleties, and potholes.

To begin with, the language lab is unfortunately named. It is in reality an electronic *learning* lab. The learning lab is basically composed of tape-recording equipment plus student-teacher intercommunication. Hence, to talk of this equipment as a "language lab" is like talking of "science projectors" or "humanities maps." If this were merely a convenient handle for describing complex equipment, there would be no quarrel. However, manufacturers and their dealers are bearing down on the schoolman with a sales story geared only for the teaching of languages—and their story is pedagogically untenable much of the time.

This has been tried before—and with tape recorders, also. For a period, tape-recorder sales forces were moving equipment into the schools on the basis of their value only to the speech departments. Unwittingly, they barged into the turmoil of homogeneous grouping (much as the language lab people are barging into the turmoil of team teaching) and, as a result, maximum, all-school use of tape recorders is still to be experienced.

Basically, there are a few investments the school executive can make today which do not have across-the-board educational value. The point is that an investment

Reported from Overview, *I* (*November 1960*), *45–47.*

ranging from $1,000 to $30,000 should be providing better education for more students than just those who are taking languages. The future growth of this market is not guaranteed; it cannot be proved that more and more students will be taking languages merely because of politico-parental expediency. This valuable teaching instrument—the learning lab—*must* therefore be considered germane to a maximum education program, or both educators and manufacturers could find themselves in an embarassing cul-de-sac.

What is implied here is a surprisingly limited vision of both educators and producers. A third party must also share responsibility. The U.S. Office of Education and the Congress itself have been promoting the volume production of equipment—in fact, have been subsidizing the sale price of that equipment by half—without offering any guidance on its utilization.

Under the terms of the National Defense Education Act, the educational executive must draw up a "project" that falls within the limits of the Act. He can propose anything so long as it is only in science, math, or foreign languages. To qualify for the money, even if he has exceeded the educational IQ the Act seems to set, he must hide his talents and concerns and prove only that his vision is as limited as the Act itself.

Party to this lunch of humble pie is, of course, the manufacturer. Both dutifully show how it is foreign languages that are of most pressing concern to a particular school—whether this be the case or not. The fact that a learning lab may enhance the teaching of a dozen other subjects is of no real consequence. Both educator and supplier are in the awkward position of loudly advertising their restricted view of education, while covertly planning to broaden the full educational services of a particular school or college. Such is the situation (already seen in business and deplored) when a small segment of a system is artificially pump-primed, thus imbalancing the entire system.

In addition to the production and marketing of their equipment, manufacturers have had to underwrite expensive research and development projects of doubtful value as competitive stop-gap measures. Education has abdicated its responsibility in this matter, and this must be recognized. When a team of university researchers, at the invitation of a manufacturer, studies the "increase in learning" in a classroom already fitted with the manufacturer's equipment, the results must be *a priori* positive. This does not imply any professional dishonesty on the part of the researcher; it merely recognizes that true controlled research is not being done here. The methodology of educational research has never been the responsibility of a commercial manufacturer alone.

What, then, must be done to insure that the best equipment be installed in our educational system? What procedure should be followed for purchasing a learning lab?

PURCHASING PROCEDURES

First, the schoolman should gather together representatives of all his instructional departments—foreign language, English, science, music, adult education, etc. He should tell them of the possibility that the school may install an electronic teaching station and 20 or 30 student stations. Each of these persons should be asked to submit a plan for the use of the projected equipment. The argument that instructors could not do this because they aren't familiar with the equipment is not valid; the staff should demand only equipment they need and can use, not what is now available. And the average instructor in any department can comprehend the terms "tape recorder" and "teacher-student intercom." Anything else, at this germinal stage, is superfluous.

The schoolman should receive a note from his English department describing the use of a lab for speech correction, dramatic or poetry readings, literary appreciation, etc. The business faculty will describe its use of the lab for shorthand testing or other dictation exercises; music appreciation will offer its potential schedule, and so on. At this point the executive has some realistic per-student costs to figure from.

On the basis of these faculty reports, the executive can counsel with his staff, if they are sufficiently knowledgeable in electronics, or with objective experts drawn from his community. Once the pedagogical specifications have been outlined, it is time to translate them into considerations of laboratory equipment, air conditioning and ventilation, plant modifications, insurance, and maintenance. When this has been done, and the executive has a grip on his educational needs, *only then* should he canvass the market for equipment.

Learning labs cannot be bought on the basis of price alone. At their present incubator state, they cannot be bought on records of past performance alone, since each installation now is and for some time will be a custom installation. They cannot be bought solely on the basis of their use for teaching languages, a thesis which inherently denies the versatility of both the educator and the manufacturer. They must be bought on the basis of well-thought-out educational needs, on the ability of each plant and faculty to intelligently use the equipment. •

ARLINGTON High School, Poughkeepsie, N.Y., has a foreign language course for parents whose youngsters are taking the same course in school. It enables the parents to keep pace with their children.

Some Practical Suggestions on

How to Use the Language Lab

GUSTAVE MATHIEU and JAMES S. HOLTON

In Bulletin of the California State Department of Education

MANY foreign-language teachers are asking today, "Now that we have a language laboratory, how do we use it?" The language laboratory is not a push-button miracle that will make students speak a foreign language without effort on their part. Languages cannot be mastered without selfdiscipline, motivation, hard work, and hours of practice.

In a sense, the term "language laboratory" is a misnomer. The language student does not perform experiments as in a science laboratory; his activities are more akin to the practice involved in acquiring the skill of playing a musical instrument. For language, too, is a skill. It is not something one talks about, but something one talks; it is not something one thinks about, but something one does. And, therefore, it is best learned not by analysis but analogy, not by pondering over it but by practicing it.

The laboratory is not intended to replace the teacher. Electromechanical devices, however elaborate, can never do the job of teaching. The tape or disc is nothing but a tool and, like any tool, it is only as effective as the person who uses it. It is an adjunct to the classroom which greatly assists the teacher in giving the student the practice necessary for learning a language.

Gustave Mathieu is Chairman of the Department of Foreign Language, Orange County State College, Fullerton, California, and James S. Holton is Assistant Professor of Foreign Language, Sacramento State College, California. Reported from Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, *"Suggestions for Teaching Foreign Languages by the Audio-Visual Method; A Manual for Teachers," XXIX (July 1960), 1–3.*

Language learners must collaborate with the laboratory machines as they collaborate with the teacher or the textbook. In order to achieve effective collaboration, the taped lessons must be well programmed. In fact, programing, which involves preparing exercises and instructions, is one of the most crucial aspects of the use of electromechanical devices for language instruction.

Although many commercially prepared tapes are available today, and more will be available in the future, there are good reasons why the teacher will want to prepare many of his own tapes. For example, by making his own tapes the teacher can design the program that is best suited for his school, level of instruction, and objectives. He can set the pace. He can also personalize the program and let the student feel that it is still the teacher that is working with him instead of an impersonal voice.

The preparation of a good script for a taped lesson, and even more so of a semester's laboratory program that correlates with classroom instruction, requires know-how, enthusiasm, imagination, and above all requires that the teacher unlearn many of the classroom techniques he has been using successfully. The teacher must became aware of, and find the courage to break, his long-ingrained classroom habits when he devises and records a taped lesson. An exercise in which the student merely conjugates into his microphone just as it is printed in his textbook, will bore the student even more than if he were to do the conjugating in class.

The laboratory should be used as an integral part of the language course. The student should be given new material in the classroom, in the laboratory itself, or in the combined laboratory-classroom.

All instructions, including those concerning the handling of equipment, such as "Now get set for recording your voice," should be recorded so that they are heard at the precise time when needed.

The instructions should preferably be in the target language. However, if there is the least doubt that the student will understand the instructions, they should be followed by an English translation. It should always be borne in mind that the machine cannot answer questions. If the student has not understood the instructions, the exercise will leave him frustrated.

If the student hears the instructions in the target language first, he will still be challenged. As he becomes more proficient and gets to know the various instructions, he can be weaned from reliance on the follow-up translation. After hearing one kind of instruction for several laboratory periods, it will no longer be necessary to translate.

Whenever the teacher uses English, it is suggested that he lower his voice, almost whisper the English. This will make the student feel that the use of English is but a necessary crutch and is not a vital part of practice.

The following four basic types of practice can be offered in the foreign-language laboratory: listening-comprehension, mimicry-memorization, creative, and selfevaluation. Each aims at a specific objective, each may employ a number of exercises. Continual variety, change of pace, and the creation of anticipation are essential for successful learning in a laboratory session. Every laboratory period should give the student all four types of practice.

Whatever the exercise may be, it is important to keep in mind that the prime objective is always the rapid and automatic execution of responses which will foster learning and imitation. •

What Are Its Limitations?

Another Look at the Conant Report

FRANCIS GRIFFITH

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

THE publicity given the Conant report, published as *The American High School Today*, was probably unequaled in the history of American education. For months before its publication, Dr. Conant discussed its recommendations at educational meetings and conventions throughout the nation so that the report, when it was finally issued, was scarcely a surprise. Even so, when it rolled off the presses, it quickly reached the best-seller lists and remained there for weeks.

Reviews of the Conant report were favorable, almost without exception. No prominent educator adversely criticized it, and most of them turned mental somersaults explaining how their particular school systems had long practiced most of the policies which Dr. Conant recommended. In the fanfare that accompanied its publication, no one offered any extended criticism of its procedure or findings.

I am not here concerned with the merits of the Conant report. It is brief, clear, and, above all, readable. Its style is a refreshing change from the sticky prose that clutters so many educational texts. All its recommendations are specific and a few of them are insightful. But the Conant report suffers from serious limitations which were ignored in the first careless rapture which greeted its appearance. These limitations are: limitation of the author; limitation of the purpose; limitation of the definition; limitation of the sample; and limitation of the content.

Francis Griffith is Principal of Richmond High School, Richmond Hills, N. Y. Reported from The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *XLIV (October 1960), 59–62.*

First, limitation of the author. John W. Gardner, president of the Carnegie Foundation, which financed the study, asserts in the preface to *The American High School Today*: "It would be hard to find anyone better equipped to make such a study in this moment of our history." In view of Dr. Conant's lack of firsthand experience with secondary-school problems, this sweeping statement is at least questionable.

Dr. Conant attended a private preparatory school before matriculating at Harvard. After graduating from Harvard, he was appointed assistant professor of chemistry and, later, chairman of department. Dr. Conant was elected president of Harvard at the age of 40 and held the position for 20 years. He resigned to become U. S. High

Commissioner to Germany and, subsequently, ambassador to the country. He never spent even a single day as a pupil, teacher, or administrator of a public elementary school, high school, or tax-supported college.

Despite this continuing interest in secondary education, Dr. Conant lacks the indispensable firsthand knowledge of public education that comes from daily service in a public school over an extended period.

From a person with Dr. Conant's background, a reader might expect a bias in favor of science and language instruction, and only a superficial knowledge of high-school curriculum and organization. The Conant report exhibits these biases and this deficiency.

LIMITATION OF PURPOSE

Second, limitation of the purpose. The survey's purpose was to discover whether the comprehensive high school protects the interests of its academically talented pupils. In other words, can a comprehensive high school provide a good general education for all and at the same time provide for the academically superior and those who need training in marketable skills?

This is a restricted aim. *The American High School Today* is not, as its title implies and as it has been interpreted, a study of the strengths and shortcomings of high-school education in this country. The circumscribed scope of the report is valid, but educators and the public at large had been led to expect a more extensive study of our country's high schools. Readers should keep Dr. Conant's restricted purpose in mind when reading his recommendations.

Now, about the survey's limitation of the definition. Dr. Conant classifies all high schools into two categories, the specialized high schools found in large cities and the comprehensive high school found in communities of all sizes. He defines a comprehensive high school as one which provides an education for all the youth of a community.

But what is a comprehensive high school? To be truly comprehensive, a school must provide a general education for all, college preparatory courses for the college-bound, and a diversified program of vocational courses for early-school-leavers and those whose formal education will terminate on graduation. It might be argued that a school is not comprehensive unless it offers at least three kinds of vocational training for boys and two for girls. Its vocational courses should prepare pupils to enter employment as skilled workers.

Franklin J. Keller traveled 18,000 miles around this country in 1951 attempting to discover just what a comprehensive high school really is and which comprehensive high schools are good. He found only three which could be described as genuinely comprehensive. Dr. Conant, prior to visiting a single school, had no difficulty selecting 103 out of a much larger number. They were defined as comprehensive before they were visited and on the basis of data which are not essential elements in any definition of comprehensiveness. The Conant report cannot be accurately described as a study of the comprehensive high school.

LIMITATION OF SAMPLE

What about the limitation of the sample in the survey? Of the 21,000 high schools in this country, Dr. Conant personally visited only 55. The total number visited by Dr. Conant and his assistants was 103. No schools in big cities were visited. The sample was further restricted to schools in which less than half the population was college-bound and in which the median IQ was between 100 and 105. They examined only those in which more than half the student body terminated its full-time education at graduation. No school with fewer than 100 in the graduating class was included.

Obviously, the sample on which the survey is based is neither meaningful nor representative. Dr. Conant confesses that any generalizations about the American high school are impossible because there are too many high schools of too many different types. "It is possible," he states, "to make valid judgments about American secondary education, but only *school by school.*"

Why, then, was the report called *The American High School Today?* The title conveys the impression that the report is a judgment on all American high schools. It is a distinct misnomer.

Finally, the limitation of the content. What the Conant report omits is as important as what it contains—if not more so. There is no mention of classroom instruction. Indeed, there is no indication that Dr. Conant or his committee members visited classrooms at all for the purpose of observing lessons and assessing the quality of instruction and supervision. The failure to observe and generalize on the merits and shortcomings of classroom instruction is a cardinal weakness of the Conant report.

Another serious weakness is the absence of any discussion of the extracurriculum. Nothing is said about extraclass activities which play so large a part in American secondary education. There is no evidence that Dr. Conant and his associates inquired about or attended any extraclass activities.

The Conant report also ignores research findings and current experimentation. There is no mention, for example, of the findings of the Eight Year Study, whose implications for secondary education are so far-reaching, and the possibilities of TV and large-group instruction.

The Conant report has many merits, but superintendents and school boards should consider its shortcomings before attempting to carry out its recommendations. •

Those 6 A.M. and 6:30 A.M. TV Classes

Continental Classroom: Progress Report

Hope Chamberlin

In NAEB Journal

In a grim postscript to Sputnik early in 1958, President Eisenhower said, "National security requires that prompt action be taken to improve and expand the teaching of science."

Only one high-school student in four was studying physics; only one in three, chemistry. Since 1950, the number of qualified high-school science teachers had dropped an alarming 53 percent.

In an attempt to remedy the situation—specifically, to provide teachers across the nation with an opportunity to improve and update their knowledge of science—the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and the National Broadcasting Company conceived of a TV course for college credit in "Atomic Age Physics."

This network educational program went on the air October 6, 1958, at 6:30 A.M. It attracted so much favorable attention and produced such favorable results that it was repeated in 1959. In addition, the AACTE and NBC, with the American Chemical Society, in 1959-60 sponsored a new course: "Modern Chemistry," in color. This course was repeated in the fall of 1960 (at 6 A.M.). The 1960-61 program also includes "Contemporary Mathematics," with "Modern Algebra" offered for the first semester and "Probability and Statistics" scheduled for the second semester.

Since its inception, interest in *Continental Classroom* has far exceeded expectations. Last year there was a known audience of approximately 500,000 viewers daily. In addition to teachers, persons from nearly all walks of life rose early five mornings a week to update themselves on physics and chemistry. Of the 40,000 teachers following the course, 3,000 were enrolled for credit at one of more than 200 participating colleges and universities.

The story behind *Continental Classroom*—how it was conceived and developed—is an example of the manner in which national communication resources can be enlisted to meet a national need. It is also an example of how foundations

Hope Chamberlin is Director of Public Relations, Continental Classroom. *Reported from* NAEB Journal, *XIX (September - October 1960), 33–37.*

and industry can contribute financial resources to nurture this need. And last, but not least, it is an example of the role a professional educational organization can play in a cast comprised of broadcaster, industry, and educators.

The idea for *Continental Classroom* originated with officials of the National Broadcasting Company. The plan for implementing the idea was contributed by the television committee of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Financial backing was provided by the Ford Foundation, the Fund for the Advancement of Education, and ten leading U.S. corporations.

Colleges and universities offering credit for this course represent a cross section of American higher education. While the majority are state-supported institutions, there are many church-affiliated, private, and municipal institutions.

Participating colleges and universities have local autonomy in implementing the course. They may utilize the network program at no cost and may charge regular tuition. Examinations are prepared by the national teachers, but a college or university may substitute tests of its own. Although the teachers cover the content they would normally include in a sequence of 4-semester-hour courses, most colleges are offering 3 hours of credit. The majority are also requiring weekly or biweekly two- or three-hour on-campus seminars.

One of the reasons *Continental Classroom* has been a successful experiment in educational television is the nature of the subject matter. Chemistry and physics are visual sciences. Drs. John F. Baxter and Harvey E. White in every lesson used diagrams, drawings, and special equipment to illustrate their lectures. In addition, the skilled NBC production staff enhanced the presentations by employing close-up shots, superimpositions, split-screen, and rear-screen projection.

EVALUATION

In order to ascertain the over-all effectiveness of *Continental Classroom*, a three-part evaluation of the "Atomic Age Physics" course was conducted:

1. To determine the immediate effect of the course on the quality of physics teaching in high schools, tests were administered to 4,000 students in 36 schools. Some of these students were taught by teachers viewing *Continental Classroom;* others were pupils who studied with teachers not following the program.

2. To determine the effectiveness of various methods of supplementing the *Continental Classroom* lecture-demonstrations, tests were administered at 28 institutions to students taking the course for credit.

3. To determine attitudes toward teaching by television, interviews in depth were conducted in nine geographical areas throughout the nation. This national poll represented a sampling of 8 per-

cent of teachers and nonteachers enrolled for credit.

"While the high-school study did not reveal a significant difference between students taught by teachers regularly viewing *Continental Classroom* and students taught by teachers not regularly viewing the telecasts, the depth of the research may not have been such as to reveal these differences," according to Dr. John J. Kelley, national coordinator for the AACTE.

"The college study revealed that students enrolled in colleges which supplemented the TV course with additional demonstration classes scored higher than did those enrolled in colleges not doing so. It was discovered, however, that supplementing the TV course by student laboratory work or written assignments did not result in test scores of significance difference," he said.

"Interestingly," he added, "those students who viewed the physics lessons in their own homes scored higher than did those who viewed as a group in the classroom."

Interest in the *Continental Classroom* courses is not confined to the continental limits of this country. "Atomic Age Physics" has been purchased by the Nippon Hose Kyokai educational television network, and is being telecast over NHK stations throughout Japan.

Many Canadians living near the U.S. border view the lessons, and inquiries have been received from Argentina, Brazil, England, France, Germany, Guam, Holland, Mexico, Peru, the Philippines, Samoa, and Sweden. In addition—on an experimental basis—one lesson of Dr. White's physics series has been translated into Spanish, French, and German.

What of the future of courses for credit over a commercial network? Long-range plans remain in the exploratory stage. But it is certain that in an age when America is concerned with providing educational opportunities for the rapidly increasing numbers of students, television will play a vital role. Even now it's proving its worth—by broadening and enriching both physical and intellectual horizons. •

THE residual rights of faculty members to their kinescoped telecasts and tape recordings are new problems facing college administrators . . . The problem goes deeper than educational television and touches on academic freedom. College professors are not hired hands whose time is bought and whose creations should be vested in the (college) corporation. College professors treated as salaried employes will tend to become "company men" with disastrous results to the free pursuit of truth which is the lifeblood of American colleges.—William Fidler in *College and University Business.*

Inherent Human Worth: Fact or Myth

HAROLD H. PUNKE

In The Social Studies

Harold H. Punke is Professor of Education at Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn. Reported from The Social Studies, *LI (October 1960), 165–69.*

MANY Americans talk about "inherent human worth" or the "inherent worth of the individual" with much haziness as to whether they refer to current realities, untapped potential, or vague ideals. Worth for what, to whom, or under what conditions are questions one might ask. Does "inherent" refer to something which inheres in the genes, or is it in the social structure?

Clarity regarding such a concept as human worth may not seem important during the elementary development of a culture when man's physical strength is conspicuous as a resource—along with other resources of nature as come immediately from forest, stream, or primitive agriculture. But as human relationships become more complex, and as imagination and learning capacity become more important in determining man's status in the world, differences among individuals become apparent which were not noticed in a simpler life. Concepts and ideals which have previously been tolerated, or nominally accepted into the periphery of moral thought, must therefore be brought under closer scrutiny and evaluation. Such is the case regarding the concept of inherent human worth.

1. *Nature of worth*—The worth of an individual in a group is primarily something which has been developed through life in that group. If it has been developed in this way, then it was not "inherent" in any genetic sense—except insofar as some unformed potentiality for developing it was in the individual at birth, because he was born a human being with potentiality for doing what other human beings do—and not born a mouse.

Then does "inherent worth" mean the *potentiality* of becoming worth *something* to *somebody*? But if the potentialities of a particular individual are never developed to a functional level, we do not know whether they exist—in him. The best we can do under such conditions is to make a statistical projection as to the percentage of the population that "probably" have them. In a situation of this kind, it seems erroneous to speak of "inherent worth" as a current reality. At best it is only in the "maybe" state.

Moreover, certain annoying questions arise in dealing with individual worth as "inherent" rather than as "developmental." One question concerns beginnings. If worth is looked on as inherent, when shall practical consideration first be given it—at birth or when one gets a job and becomes a productive member of a society. A more difficult question concerns ends: If worth as a positive element inheres in the individual organism, does he ever lose it—or may it be transformed into something negative? Moreover, do dead persons continue to have "inherent worth"? Problems of this kind offer no difficulty if worth is considered a social product—i.e., that if it inheres anywhere, it inheres in the social structure.

2. *The idea of equal worth.*—Although the idea of "inherent worth" in a genetic sense has logical weaknesses, and needs revamping from the standpoint of rendering broad service in a complex society, it has had value in the past development of American political democracy. Emphasis on the idea of "inherent worth" of each individual is on a par with the idea that "all men are born equal," as rallying cries for attack on a system of special privilege and social stratification.

Acquaintance with Darwin's idea of individual variation, competition, and survival should convince one that concepts emphasizing that men are born equal or have inherent worth are not biological concepts. From the standpoint of contributions to society, few people would maintain that there are no important differences among individuals regarding their worth. For the average person in America, or in the world, the president of the United States has much greater value or worth than a county sheriff. Jesus still has more worth than the general run of bishops.

Furthermore, fluctuations in one's worth to the world, or to some smaller group, occur in the lives of most persons. If one attempts to designate worth in the foregoing sense as "functional worth" in contrast with "inherent worth," he is probably differentiating between something that exists and something that does not.

3. *Moral and spiritual values or worth.*—Much of the reference made to moral and spiritual values or worth suggests a feeling that there are important aspects of life which cannot readily be translated into tangible or material terms. Social scientists have shown the influences of customs, traditions, and mores on individual behavior. They have shown ways in which chance, geography, and other factors influence the patterns of custom and tradition that develop in particular areas. It seems likely that further analysis and reflection concerning spiritual values or worth will reduce the confusion that now enshrouds that field.

Moral and spiritual worth may become looked on as part of a continuum—with the most obvious material at one end of the scale, and the least tangible or material at the other. If so, the differences from material-to-moral-to-spiritual become matters of degree in materiality. The idea of such worth may have a place in this relationship—as a reflection of "hope" that values or worth may emerge from spheres which are beyond our present scope of discernment, whereas nearly everything at present within that scope shows differences among persons.

Such "hope" could be a peg in the general architecture for developing social equality, on which significant aspects of government and other institutions might hang. The point is: particular concepts and explanations typically outlive their usefulness, unless they are frequently revised—and whether they are called myths or "scientific laws" may be irrelevant. This includes such concepts as "inherent worth."

4. *Similarities between "worth" and "success."* – As concepts, "worth" and "success" have much in common. Both are vague. Both are judged by widely varied criterions. One of the difficulties in preparing successful teachers in America is the wide disagreement on what the successful school should accomplish. In a nation or in a restricted subject-matter area where mentality is streamlined, success in teaching is easy to define.

In any culture in which there is considerable room for independent thought, individuality, and vigorous growth, the definitions or standards, by which success, human worth, and many other concepts are judged, will be numerous and changing. The alternatives to this situation are the yes-man's orbit, the concentration camp, and the grave.

One characteristic of individuality is its ability to bring forth unique or creative suggestions—new hypotheses emerging in part from old data. The need for freedom to present the new hypotheses without punishment, censorship, or ridicule is clearly important.

"Worth" and "success" both illustrate the point that in a complex and dynamic culture people must learn to get along with numerous and shifting concepts—a particular set of measuring sticks is not useful as long as it used to be. This means the constant threat of some strong man arising who will set forth simple streamlined goals, as a rallying point for persons who are confused—or fatigued in trying to keep up with the pace of change. "Worth" and "success" and many other concepts are defined by the ethical content of a culture at a particular time. Hence, one should expect vagueness or change in that content to be reflected in the definitions concerned.

5. *Development of personal growth as a social goal.*—To what extent should the development of personal worth be a social and educational goal in a democratic society? Such a goal might be important in several ways. The extent to which individuality and free

personal growth are fostered will greatly influence the degree of stimulation toward cultural change and development. And, if such freedom and worth are extensively fostered, there will be a speed-up in rate of obsolescences in concepts and practices which have been inherited from the past. This will demand a more frequent intellectual and cultural housecleaning.

Whatever is largely fostered by a social group, comes substantially under the control and direction of that group. To what extent, then, is it paradoxical to say that freedom is controlled and directed. Perhaps in America the most important controls are not likely to be manifested through an outright prohibiting of individuals from engaging in certain activities or through forbidding them a forum from which to speak, but through insult and ridicule by means of innuendo and political investigation and through offering them none of the elaborate facilities which are now commonly needed for advanced study or experimentation.

There are several possible methods for developing personal worth. Some of these might be summarized as follows:

1. A rich background of culture is important for the individual—education, travel, extensive association with people, art, philosophy, science, etc. Such background supplies the raw material which enters into imagination—the "sources" which enable one to be "resourceful."

2. Freedom to explore and experiment, with a minimum of rules and restraints—except as one learns to discipline himself in accordance with the psychology of learning, and the nature of the materials worked with.

3. Good leadership—to point out areas for exploration, and to offer cues on method. So long as America emphasizes home responsibility as much as at present, there will be tremendous variation in the opportunity to the nation's children at the point of leadership. Schools and similar community institutions are not likely to even up the differences—although they could do more than at present.

4. Material resources are important to support individuals who are learning and are developing worth, and to provide developmental materials and facilities.

5. Encouragement may be one of the most important single items. Freedom from being laughed at, regardless of what one tries or the views he expounds, will reassure many persons.

Encouragement has two ramifications: while one is trying to express his ideas, he thinks further into the scope and implications of those ideas; and his expressions generate comments from others, with the possibility of mutual stimulation and enlightenment. Encouragement is also important from the standpoint of giving the individual confidence that he, too, is capable of originating something worth contributing. •

Only Two States Can Point to Progress

Teachers Must Discipline Their Professional Colleagues

GERALD R. FIRTH
In Phi Delta Kappan

EXISTING legal machinery is apparently inadequate for the removal of incompetent or unethical teachers from our classrooms. Yet attempts to meet the continuing teacher shortage threaten to increase the number of undesirables. As a result, the teaching profession is challenged to determine appropriate methods for disciplining colleagues through its own professional organizations.

The numerical shortage of competent teachers undoubtedly will vex the nation's schools for many years. Although the percentage has been reduced, increasing numbers of emergency certificates are issued annually to students who have not completed regular college programs. An NEA bulletin, *The Status of the American Public School Teacher*, published in 1957, reported that one teacher in 10 fails to meet certification requirements. Despite the modest standards of 16 states which do not demand college graduation, over 35,000 of the new teachers employed a year ago failed to meet their state's requirements.

Closely allied to this problem is the development of "conversion programs," which allow liberal-arts graduates to become teachers after a few weeks of intensified courses in education.

Gerald R. Firth is Assistant Professor of Educational Administration, University of Buffalo, New York. Reported from Phi Delta Kappan, *XLII (October 1960), 24–27.*

Wholesale student recruitment by some teacher-preparatory institutions also militates against careful selection. The certificates of inferior teachers become permanent if additional requirements are completed within a specified period. Thus, the tenure protection is extended to such incompetent persons, effectively blocking their removal except for the most serious reasons.

The number of persons eliminated from their assignments under tenure is insignificant. Charges of moral turpitude often lead to resignation rather than proceedings; but it is extremely difficult to prove incompetence, insubordination, or even incapacity to a lay jury in a court of law. Loss of license appears to occur even less frequently than loss of position. Only one member has been expelled from the NEA for violation of its ethical code since 1919.

Over one-third of the states have state-wide tenure provisions, and about two-thirds of the teachers in the country are in districts which grant tenure. Moreover, contractural obligations and certification statutes sometimes hamper dismissal even in the most obvious situations. A 1956 judicial interpretation of an ambiguously worded statute by the Supreme Court of Nebraska apparently makes it impossible to discharge a teacher for *any* reason, regardless of the seriousness of the charge.

A recent study to determine the current situation at the state level discloses that existing educational associations have thus far been unable to discharge their disciplinary functions. Only New York and California have so far developed plans which show substantial progress in this respect. Future promise, however, is offered by teachers organizations in Pennsylvania, Washington, and Connecticut.

TWO PLANS

Both the New York and California plans involve the codes of professional duties and responsibilities adopted by the respective associations, reporting of violations, and evaluating charges of alleged violations.

In New York, under the plan proposed by the New York State Teachers Association but not yet placed before the state legislature, the State Board of Admissions and Practice would determine the degree of discipline to be invoked against those found guilty of violation. The board could only make recommendations for action to the chief state school officer. The latter would review appeals by penalized practitioners. If those penalized, at a later date, are able to meet professional standards, they could apply for a new license.

In California, a 1955 law requires that hearings on permanent teacher dismissals be held in Superior Court with the burden of proof on the school district to produce adequate evidence. The court then rules on whether or not the district may proceed with the dismissal.

Although the plan sponsored by the California Teachers Association was adopted by the state legislature in 1955, no case had been undertaken in the complete pattern under the law through last year. Nine cases were discussed with the Personnel Standards Commission during the intervening period. The teachers involved were then notified of the district's intention to dismiss them. In seven instances, the teachers resigned; the local board changed its mind and did not proceed in the other two cases.

In California, either the local board of education which has notified a teacher of its intention to dismiss him or the teacher himself may contact the Personnel Standards Commission of the California Teachers Association. The commission first determines that the charge falls within the three classifications which constitute its province: incompetence, unfitness to teach, and unprofessional conduct. If a request is accepted, a team of three to five members is then appointed to conduct a hearing and investigation.

HEARING TEAMS

The CTA Personnel Standards Commission has seven members: two superintendents, a junior-college teacher, a high-school teacher, an elementary supervisor, and two elementary teachers. The hearing teams which actually conduct the investigations are composed of supervisors, administrators, and teachers of various grade levels and subject fields. Members of the Personnel Standards Commission are appointed to terms of seven years by the Board of Directors of the California Teachers Association.

The New York state proposal has a Board of Admissions and Practice. From a list of nominees submitted by the New York State Teachers Association, the chief state school officer would appoint members to this Board. The members would serve overlapping six year terms. The board would appoint hearing committees selected from a master panel of active teaching personnel nominated by the New York State Teachers Association. The hearing committees would be composed of persons qualified to handle the type of case.

In New York, where the proposal expressly denies any intent to "invalidate rights of local districts or teachers as provided in the existing tenure laws," the Professional Practices Act would allow professional selfenforcement and tenure regulations to exist simultaneously as separate forms of discipline. The California plan merely affects court procedures in dismissal cases under the tenure law. Professional selfenforcement has been developed as an integral part of tenure regulations. In both states, the enforcing agency would be authorized by statute to exercise its functions over all practitioners.

Progress is being made slowly, but the tide of professional enforcement is still at an extremely low ebb. California is the only state ready for action, although it is hoped that the New York plan will soon become operational.

At a time when society places a high premium on their services, teachers find a blanket invitation extended that threatens to lower their prestige. While many undesirables ultimately leave education as a natural consequence of their unfitness, the fact remains that such people find easy access to teaching positions, represent the profession to the public while in service, handicap action along professional lines in the school and teachers organizations, and, most important of all, may do irreparable harm to their students.

Perpetuation of teacher apathy in this area is a flagrant abrogation of responsibility to their colleagues, to the public, and to the children entrusted to their care. •

Blessed Is the Nonconformist

MARGUERITE HALL ALBJERG
In College and University

"THOU shalt adjust" has been accepted as the eleventh commandment by many Americans. However, it might be more advisable if instead there had been added a tenth beatitude, namely, "Blessed is the nonconformist for he is the gadfly of civilization."

Cooperation should not be disparaged, but "doing things together" can become an enervating tradition unless individuals are incited also to think and act as independent personalities. Unity is necessary to provide a workable society. Yet American history was inaugurated by nonconformists who subsequently became rebels and whose descendants subdued a continent through their pioneering efforts. Dissent is imperative as a safeguard to society's freedom and as an incentive to its discovery of truth.

There is no generalized unit trait such as conforming or dissenting, since a man is often an independent individual in one group and an acquiescent follower in another. However, the extraordinary mass production in this country, which has been possible only through vast standardization, has resulted in a powerful impetus toward producing "mass minds" as well. Likewise, mass communications have facilitated the uniformity of minds. Hence, conforming has become the approved habit; dissenting, the unpopular practice.

Marguerite Hall Albjerg is Counselor in the Office of the Dean of Women, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana. Reported from College and University, *XXXVI (Fall 1960), 14–19.*

Enforced conformity also gravely endangers freedom, and when freedom is restricted, progress falters. The creative neurotic, the inquiring skeptic, the adventurous explorer are all potential foes of the *status quo.*

In the areas of government and of education, there are significant forces promoting conformity and also penalizing the nonconformer. The comfortable congeniality of the group, whether it be a labor union or a board of directors, seems to determine increasingly its members' political opinions. This "progressive dwindling of the self as an authentic center of decision and action" imperils the whole fabric of the democratic process. Learning from others is a commendable procedure; going along with the undigested observations of the group is a threat to individuality and thereby a danger to democracy.

Institutions of higher learning have also reflected this zeal for conformity and zest for mediocrity. For it is both the weakness and greatness of democracy that its popular desires permeate its social institutions. Learning, however, is not a mass process but an individual accomplishment. The student's experience is probably not significant unless he has become imbued with the concept of selfeducation. If he has, there is little danger that the universities will become assembly lines for turning out human automatons.

THREE TRENDS

At least three trends have contributed to the current collegiate atmosphere. First, personal adjustment has seemed to take precedence over individual learning. This concept, unfortunately, has become the leading "educational" dogma for many parents, for some counselors, for a few professors, and for countless students. No intelligent person would deny the value of emotional maturity and of the capacity to adjust to various situations. But these very qualities are probably less often acquired by the usual techniques devised to expedite the student's adjustment than by his experience in the wisely guided classroom, in the effectively used library and laboratory, and by association with similarly motivated classmates and competent professors. Then too, the student's growth is aided by counseling with advisers who are so well oriented themselves that they sometimes sense danger in the consistent conformer and see merit in the occasional nonconformer.

An effective counselor need not necessarily be an intellectual leader, but he must be no alien to the intellectual life. He must comprehend it, otherwise he cannot aid those he counsels in getting their bearings in the melee of campus activities.

Unfortunately, many youths as well as adults still think that to be educated means first of all to conform; to be a nonconformist is equivalent to being an abnormal person; being "adjusted" is better than being informed; learning to "socialize" is more important than learning to think. But acquiring the ability to think, which is one of the university's basic objectives for its students, is not done, as William Hocking observed, by doing something else than thinking. Furthermore, daily mingling "in the pallid company of the uncommitted" is destructive to independent thinking.

A second trend is toward an increased interest in vocational education and a decreased interest in study of the liberal arts. Courses in the learning of skills often lend themselves more readily to regimentation and conformity than does learning in the humanities. Also, the teaching of vocational subjects is frequently tailored to the current commercial demands rather than to the ablest development of the student's individual abilities. Even research on the graduate level is sometimes designed to meet the specific need of a single business firm and fails to provide the student with valuable training in basic research.

Some believe that the present century "confuses technical knowledge with wisdom." For youth customarily seems more eager to acquire the "know how" than the "know why," yet it is the latter which trains his mind to inquire, to reason, and to understand.

A third trend is the cult of anti-intellectualism which has invaded the campus as well as the market place. Its basic philosophy is, "What is popular must be good." Its favorite affirmation is, "I'd rather be a bonehead than an egghead." In government, the anti-intellectuals favor the common man over the trained expert. In society and business, they see great virtue in conformity to the group. In cultural matters, they believe that what is currently popular must be the most desirable. In education, they think that students invariably know best what college is for, and that cultivating an agreeable personality is preferable to developing a vigorous intellect.

Americans are the only people, insists J. Donald Adams, who have invented words which suggest that being interested in things of the mind is somehow reprehensible. The egghead is often subject to suspicion or ridicule, and Adams points out that some current writers actually "glorify the mutton-head and hold him up to admiration."

WAYS TO HELP

Such anti-intellectual trends are not the occasion for despair but they are adequate reasons for serious concern. There are several ways by which we might help.

We as individuals should cultivate the spirit of skepticism in our daily life. This need not be a cynical approach but rather an adaptation of the scientific method to our daily routine.

Why not get into the habit of questioning the preposterous claims of the advertiser, the wholesale promises of the politician, the miraculous assertions of the salesman, the clever attack of the journalist, the persuasive argument of the professor? It would be more strenuous than acquiescing, but it would also be more enlightening and much more exhilarating.

We should challenge the virtue of widespread conformity while paying heed to the constructive nonconformist. Indeed, there is wisdom in the admonition to keep fertile the soil where dissent and nonconformity grow.

Last, we as citizens should invigorate our belief in a democratic society. We can demonstrate this by active devotion rather than by lip service to the concept of free men, by our faith in their potential and in their ability to govern themselves, and by actions in which we strive to help the individual to retain or regain his integrity. •

Typical Day for the Librarian

What Goes on in the School Library?

In California Journal of Elementary Education

Reported from California Journal of Elementary Education, *XXIX (August 1960), 45–50.*

A MODERN educational program requires the use of a great wealth of informational materials. Children today have their intellectual curiosity stimulated to an amazing degree by events in this rapidly changing world. They need information about an ever-increasing number of topics. Teachers need a wide variety of reading materials because of the differences in interest, need, and reading ability found in every classroom.

In the elementary school, organized instruction in the use of books and libraries is necessary. This must be reinforced by teaching, which is done only as the need arises. It is not sufficient to tell a group how a card catalogue is arranged or what kind of information is contained in a certain book. After each phase of instruction is given, the librarian must be alert for opportunities to emphasize its value. With this type of person in charge and with convenient tables and chairs, a central library in each school can do much to bring children and books together in an inviting atmosphere.

A typical day in such a school library might be as follows:

The day began as usual. At 8:30 a line of boys and girls waited for the library to open. They came into the library to return books, finish homework, or to browse through magazines or books. This morning it was not necessary to post the picture of the Mad Hatter saying, "No room! No room!" for some empty chairs were still available. The library helpers performed their usual duties: circulation, checking overdue lists, shelving, processing books. Two sixth-grade girls checked a box of new books against the purchase order.

When the bell rang there was an exodus from the library and the librarian began to prepare for her first class. Fourth-grade pupils were to have a follow-up lesson on the card catalogue. The class had previously been introduced to the card catalogue by means of a series of 12″ x 20″ cards and a visograph. They knew that the numbers on the books were their "addresses" and that the numbers on the cards were to tell where the books "lived."

Today's lesson was to be a review of the three kinds of cards. Sheets of dittoed paper showing two subject cards, two title cards, and an author card were passed to each child and discussed. Terms such as call number, copyright, author, and title were reviewed.

The last part of the period was used for free reading and for circulation. Two boys sat at the circulation desk to stamp the date due and check names and room numbers on the book cards.

The next period was for research by small groups. The sixth grade was studying South America and a group needed maps to make mosaics of each country, to be fitted to a larger mosaic of South America. The librarian was able to provide suitable outline maps. The children were a little concerned about the size and needed some guidance concerning the importance of scale.

The librarian next turned her attention to a group of fifth-grade pupils who needed to know "more about Benjamin West than was in the reader, and about some other American painters." Glad that there were three sets of encyclopedias in the library, as well as some good reference books on painters, the librarian started them on their research. She also recommended *Benjamin West and his Cat Grimalkin* to be shared by the reading group.

At this point the principal entered to see if any information could be found in the library about Arabic language records. Being responsible for audio-visual materials, the librarian's file yielded a catalogue from a firm which carried three albums. The principal borrowed the catalogue and thanked the librarian.

During the first 20 minutes of the period following recess, the librarian catalogued books without interruption. Then the door burst open and in came Ricky and Tommy with seven-year-old Tommy clutching 26 inches of wiggling snake.

"Oh, Mrs. Blank, do you know the name of our snake?"

Mrs. Blank reached for Pickwell's *Amphibians and Reptiles of the Pacific States,* while the snake crawled over the table, barely under control of Tommy's grimy little fist. First the picture, then the identification key, then the picture again, and "our snake" emerged no longer nameless but with the impressive title of *Thammophis sirtalis infernalis* (Pacific Garter Snake).

USE OF ENCYCLOPEDIA

During the last period before noon, a fifth-grade class received instruction in the use of the encyclopedia. Emphasis was given to guide words, boldface type, skimming, pictures and captions, diagrams and graphs to show how they all help to locate information. To illustrate the fact that the book may not use the exact words that the teacher uses in an assignment, the librarian told of a fifth-grade girl who was looking for "the work of women in pioneer days" and insisted there was nothing about it in the encyclopedia's article on *Pioneers.* The librarian read the paragraph headings and asked for hands to be raised whenever something concerning women's work was mentioned. The pupils became alert to such words as "cooking along the way," "food," and "grinding corn." Seven paragraphs dealing with the subject were found.

During the half hour that the library was open at noon, the librarian had several opportunities to reinforce previous instruction. Believing that she should never supply answers to questions if the information could be found in the card catalogue or from a book previously introduced, pupils were referred to the card catalogue for answers to such questions as: Where will I find *Codes and Ciphers?* Do we have a book about magnets? Who wrote *Miss Pickerell Goes to Mars?*

The first period after lunch was reserved for primary classes to visit the library. This day was an important one for the second grade. For the first time they were to select their own books to take home.

The librarian had prepared slips the same size as the book cards so the pupils could practice writing their names in the small space. After a brief talk on the care of books, the pupils were shown where the easy books were kept. Each child was permitted to stamp the date due on his book and on the card. It was obvious that this activity was even more exciting than the prospect of taking books home.

The third grade came in next for a second lesson in alphabetizing. The librarian used a pocket chart and groups of primer cards to be arranged in alphabetical order. Each child was given an opportunity to place a card in the pocket chart. Interest remained high throughout the lesson.

For the sixth grade that followed, the librarian helped the children to find needed information but gave no formal instruction. The teacher had asked that the pupils be permitted to check their science reports for errors and to complete the illustrations. Research for the reports had been done previously in the library. They ranged from a simple one on magnets to a 20-page profusely illustrated report on roots.

No library classes were scheduled for the last period. Four pupils came in for a biography of a musician that the music teacher had recommended, some fifth-grade pupils worked on reports on different states, and a child came in to get a book "about things that boil over." The librarian hesitated a moment with this request before showing him where the books on science experiments were kept. She also catalogued four books while her patrons worked independently.

It is obvious that teachers in this school knew how to make the library truly an extension of the classroom. The library was neat and orderly, but it was also obvious that the librarian believed that people are more important than materials, and that it is better to arouse children's interests in a variety of subjects than to maintain neat shelves. •

Why Educate the Mentally Handicapped?

WAYNE R. MAES

In Michigan Education Journal

MR. MORRICE lives in a modest, gray bungalow in the middle of the block just a stone's throw from the forge plant. Rising at 5:30 each morning, he faithfully punches the factory clock at not later than 6:50 A.M. He works an eight-hour day and receives a pay check which keeps his family adequately clothed, housed, and fed with just enough left over to buy a few simple enjoyments.

What is so significant about Mr. Morrice's life? *He is mentally handicapped.* A number of other Mr. Morrices have gone through the program for the mentally handicapped in Lansing's public schools and have made a fine adjustment to work in the community. They are living justifications for educating the mentally handicapped. They have ceased to be a drain on the community and have become actively participating and contributing citizens.

However, it is striking to those of us who work with the child with limited mental endowment that many graduates of the program for the mentally handicapped have not been so fortunate; their adjustment to life has been very inadequate. One extensive study shows that the number of arrests among the mentally handicapped is 20 percent as opposed to 5 percent among the rest of the population.

Records from the Michigan Department of Corrections also show that there are proportionally many more mentally handicapped committed to penal institutions than nonmentally handicapped. Programs for the mentally handicapped are justified by successes like Mr. Morrice's, but the mentally handicapped child who is a prospective delinquent or criminal offender offers a tremendous challenge for even more and better programing.

In an attempt to determine why these young people vary so much

Wayne R. Maes is Director of Psychological Services, Lansing, Mich., Public Schools. Reported from Michigan Educational Journal, *XXXVIII (November 1960), 248–49, 284.*

in their job and total-life adjustment, a pilot study was made to compare Lansing students who had been successful with those who had not. A comparison of the two groups on intelligence, reading, and arithmetic test scores revealed no significant differences.

There were, however, significant differences between the two groups on all the personal attributes listed on an employer rating scale, with the successful students being rated higher. Employers rated the students on such qualities as punctuality, willingness to follow directions, and ability to get along with fellow students. Behavorial patterns, not the degree of academic proficiency, are the decisive attributes for job adjustment for the mentally handicapped. The products which these young people have to sell employers are their personal attitudes and habits. *These are their trade skills.*

These findings were certainly not unexpected. In the early 1930's Alice Channing studied retarded youth on the job and the report published by the United States Department of Labor stressed the importance of habits and attitudes. These findings were later supported by Richard Hungerford, who developed a curriculum emphasizing the importance of personal habits and attitudes.

DEFICIENCES NOTED

As the importance of personal attitudes and habits looms larger, certain deficiencies in the curriculum for the mentally handicapped child begin to stand out in bold relief. Many schools simply dilute the offerings of the regular program so that the mentally handicapped child can assimilate them. To some extent this is like solving a deficiency in vitamin C by giving less vitamin A. What the child needs is not only less of the same dose but also supplementary medicine. Things often learned by the average child in the process of living (*e.g.*, personal hygiene, personal appearance) cannot be left to chance with the mentally handicapped.

If a program for the mentally handicapped is to be realistic, it must be based on: an assessment of attributes needed for job success and life adjustment; continuous appraisal of each student to measure his growth toward attaining the attributes identified in the assessment; and a curriculum designed to meet the individual needs of students as identified in the above continuous appraisal.

Some schools have already begun the job of preparing students for realistic life goals. They encourage, for example, assuming one's share of the task, improving personal appearance, being punctual, and so on. We do need to know more about such aspects of learning. For example, if assessment of life objectives reveals that attitude changes are essential (in light of the delinquency rate they are), we must face up to what we know about facilitating such changes with the mentally handicapped.

Recent attempts have been made to achieve attitude changes among randomly selected students in a regular school population. Some of the more promising efforts have been made at the State University of Iowa, University of Maryland, and Bank Street College in New York. Primary emphasis of these explorations is placed on using a dynamic rather than a surface approach to behavior. It is an effort to use case-study techniques, test information, and so on to learn more about the hidden meanings behind behavior. The belief is that if one knows what is causing the behavior in a student, one reacts in a more positive way and is more able to help the student gain insight into his feelings and actions.

The task ahead is to see whether some of these techniques are adaptable to education of the mentally handicapped. Ingenuity is needed in formulating and testing ways of assisting the mentally handicapped child to grow in the personal attributes that are going to be decisive in his making a poor or good adjustment to life. We must be sufficiently flexible to disengage ourselves from the "three R's" long enough to assess more adequately the important elements of job success and life adjustment. This is not to minimize the importance of academics, but they need to be kept in proper perspective. Possibly as important as the mastery of an arithmetic function are the work habits learned while doing arithmetic.

The successes of future Mr. Morrices are certainly going to be contingent, to a significant extent, on the experiences which the public-school curriculum has to offer. •

- Near-feeble-minded children can be restored to average intelligence by administering a large portion of loving care. In a controlled experiment, orphaned children with an IQ of 64 scored 94 on intelligence tests after a year's stay with happy, normal homes, away from the cold atmosphere of orphanages.—*Harold M. Skeels*, National Institute of Mental Health.

- Mentally retarded children improve intellectually with age, despite distinct physical and social handicaps . . . To a limited but real degree, mentally retarded children are capable of learning the niceties of life which enable people to live amicably with one another. These social skills are as important to the child as his knowledge and vocational skills. They also help him overcome some of the physical limitations which confront him.—*Warren A. Ketcham*, University of Michigan.

Must It Be Inferior?

High-School Dramatics

GREGORY A. FALLS
In The Clearing House

TOO many high-school dramatics programs are so far removed from teaching literature that it is a wonder that the dramatics program and the senior English course are both housed under the same roof. I am referring to the unfortunate, misguided selection of "proper plays" for high-school students to perform. Thousands of high schools are training their students in art and literature by either casting them in, or performing for them, some of the poorest, most tasteless plays ever written.

The standard argument for such a policy is threefold: These "high-school plays" are all the students are capable of doing; this is what the public wants; and the school can afford to do only nonroyalty plays.

Let us examine these three alibis—and alibis they are—for not teaching what we should by rights be teaching.

The first argument almost refutes itself. Can it be true that our students are capable of reading the great masters of literature and understanding something of what they read, yet all they are capable of understanding for performance is "Johnny Pumpkin's Mad Courtship" or some other such trash?

High-school students see adult movies and TV plays, read adult books, get married, discuss political, religious, and philosophical concepts, but at the same time, they are not capable of even the most simple adult dramatic literature! A look at the current production schedule of high schools all over the country, in such listings as are found in *Players Magazine*, will show that in some places high-school students are producing and seeing intelligent, mature, adult plays. Do the other high schools wish to admit that these schools have such vastly superior students, both for performing and viewing?

I do not mean that the high schools should now all leap into production of Aeschylus' *Oresteia* or Racine's *Phédre*. My point is that schools can justify their choice of plays only on the basis of mature, adult literature. Since we are training adolescents for adult responsibilities by introducing them into the world of adults, we must ask ourselves: Is this play literature? Is it adult? Does this play

Gregory A. Falls is Associate Professor of Speech at the University of Vermont, Burlington, and Founder-Director of the Champlain Shakespeare Festival. Reported from The Clearing House, *XXXV (October 1960), 108–110.*

have any pretenses at art, or was it written by some sweet old lady in East Horseshoe, who just loves to write innocent, adolescent plays?

My rule-of-thumb criterion is that no play should be performed in a high school that would not at least be accepted for reading and discussion in a contemporary literature course.

The second argument for doing inferior plays is that "this is the only kind of thing our audiences want." This argument immediately raises the question: For whom are the plays being done in an educational institution? Is the dramatics program primarily obligated to entertain the theater-going community, or is it obligated to teach art and literature to students? Certainly my vote goes with education before entertainment—with the student, not the public.

But even taking this argument at face value, it is fallacious. The poor "high-school-type play" is grossly inferior to the movie and TV plays which this same adult audience patronizes and apparently relishes. The captive audience member at most high-school productions always presets his standards low, because he feels he must. Considering some of the horrors these people have sat through all these years, their loyalty cannot be questioned; it is noble!

The third argument, that "we can afford only nonroyalty plays," is also specious. The highest royalty which a play charges today is $50, and the play leasers commonly reduce prices as much as 50 percent for schools. Thus, royalties are in reality only about $25 to $35, with second performances proportionately reduced.

Few contemporary plays of any literary pretensions are available royalty free, although all of the great plays of the past are outside the copyright limitations. Since the purpose of high-school dramatics is to teach literature, there can be no justification for the school to capitulate its obligation because of $25 to $35 a year for royalty.

Usually the reason a school is not able to pay royalties is that it expects to use all the proceeds for something extraneous to dramatics. Since the literary merits of the play produced are of prime importance to the entire dramatics program, the school must first purchase a respectable play, before using play proceeds for band uniforms, trophies, and the like.

One further complaint about the inferior high-school dramatics program: the obsession with contest plays. Many schools are caught in the tradition of the one-act play contest. This endless circle is a poor motivation for a dramatics program, although in many schools it seems to be the only motivation. The danger of play contests is that they are concerned with competing, whereas art and literature are not basically competitive. We must remember that the purpose of high-school dramatics is to teach art and literature. •

A Safe Environment for Learning

BURT JOHNSON and STANLEY A. ABERCROMBIE

In NEA Journal

HOW does your school building rank in safety? Are the classrooms hazard-free, or are they breeding grounds for accidents? For a quick bird's-eye view, take this partial tour of a hypothetical school plant and inspect its safety features. Then map out a complete inspection tour of your school to be made periodically. Regular team inspections may save pupils and staff from serious accidents and uncover fire hazards no one knew existed.

Entrance.—Watch for half-steps at the main entrance, a tripping hazard going in and a surprise invitation to stumbling coming out. Both sides of the double door should open easily, with antipanic bars for mass exits in a hurry.

Corridors and stairs.—Nonslip wax on the floors will prevent countless falls. Doorways situated close to stairways should have doors that open away from the stairs. All doors (if not recessed) should swing back flat against the wall. Stairways should be wide and well-lighted, with handrails on both sides and one in the center. If small children use the stairs, there should be a second rail for their use, a foot below the regular one.

Classrooms. — Primary-grade rooms should have small-sized furniture for small-sized people. Check the chairs for broken rungs and wobbly legs. Surprising how many things youngsters can do with their chairs! Accordion doors on closets save space and reduce the 3:30 P.M. traffic jam when children are hustling to put away books and supplies.

Casement windows in the classroom should open easily, with the bottom going out and the top going in. When open, the top edge should be nearly seven feet above the floor to give plenty of head clearance.

Science rooms should have a demonstration desk with a chemical-resistant top, a sink, Bunsen

Burt Johnson, former Chairman of the NEA National Commission on Safety Education, is Supervising Principal at Ardsley, New York. Stanley A. Abercrombie is Assistant Secretary of the NEA Commission. Reported from NEA Journal, *XXXIX (October 1960), 24.*

burner, and electrical outlets. There should be good storage space below, with equipment neatly arranged and uncrowded. Having two fire extinguishers in the science lab is a good idea—one for use in emergencies and one for demonstration purposes. Add to this an asbestos blanket—just in case—and you can be sure that learning of safe practices goes hand in hand with science in this room.

Locker and shower rooms.—Floors should have abrasive strips where students make turns. And hand holds at treacherous corners may be lifesavers. The locker room should have sturdy lockers. Flimsy ones, if not well anchored, could easily topple over when the students crowd in to change.

In the shower room, standard mixing valves help prevent scalds. Nozzles which are placed too high in the girls' showers may be all right for shampoos, but girls aren't interested in shampooing their hair at school and shouldn't have to close their eyes stepping in and out of the shower.

Shops.—Shops should be neat and clean with covered metal cans for waste. Safety signs should be posted at power machines and a first-aid kit placed next to the fire extinguisher. Teachers shouldn't expect the safety signs to do all the work, however. Students can't learn safe practices from warning signs alone.

Grounds. — Well-kept grounds and a smooth, all-weather surface over the big play area indicate careful planning. There should be sand under the swings and bars, and yellow lines around each piece of equipment. Check to see if the walkways alongside the building are free of overhead obstructions. The bike rack should be situated so that the riders do not have to cross the faculty parking lot to get to the building.

Once the physical facilities of a school building have been geared for safety, what other precautions must be taken?

Planning for an orderly daily routine of the people in a school—their comings and goings and doings—is closely related to safety. As the routine varies from time to time, changes must be arranged to allow smooth traffic flow and ease of movement. Hurry and confusion breed accidents, hamper administrative management, contribute nothing to learning.

Periodic inspections of all parts of the building and every piece of furniture and equipment are a part of safety. Some inspecting—of heating and ventilating equipment, for example—needs the attention of qualified specialists. But other inspecting—like classroom storage cabinets, furniture, and trash accumulation—can and should involve the pupils.

Their searching eyes will find many things that need correcting. And the minds behind those eyes will grow, through the experience of inspecting, to appreciate what makes for hazards to safety. •

What Is Its Big Problem?

Graduate Education in the United States

In Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly

ALTHOUGH largely unheard by the general populace, one of the noisiest disputes among university men in recent years has concerned graduate education in the United States, which is by no coincidence the title of a book by Bernard Berelson which was published recently by the McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Under a Carnegie grant to the University of Chicago, Dr. Berelson, who is now director of Columbia University's Bureau of Applied Social Research, made a two-year study with the purpose of showing what has happened, what is now happening, and what will probably happen to graduate education within the next few years.

Merely to sort out the varying arguments about the subject is a major task. So the reader is directed to the book itself, and this article will deal with just one question—what everyone acknowledges to be A Big Problem in American education today: the preparation of college teachers.

From the beginning there has been the question of purpose; what is graduate education *for?* This usually boils down to a question of what priority should be assigned to the preparation of college teachers as against the training of researchers; and for those critics who claim that the graduate schools have gone astray, it reduces further to these three charges:

Reported from the Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly, *VIII (October 1960), 3–6.*

1. *Policy*: The graduate schools have wrongly assigned priority to training for research.

2. *Program*: The graduate school selects the wrong students in the first place and then gives them improper training, in that the training lacks sufficient breadth and sufficient training in teaching.

3. *Numbers*: The graduate school is not training enough people to staff the colleges in the years ahead.

As for policy, it is true that the graduate schools *have* assigned priority to training for research; the only question is whether they have done so "wrongly." Those who claim it is wrong base their criticism on what Dr. Berelson calls the market-research argument: The graduate schools should prepare their students directly for what the students subsequently do, the twin assumptions being that most teach and few do research.

These assumptions are not wholly correct, and they are becoming less correct as time goes by. At the turn of the century about 80 percent of all Ph.D.'s went into academic life; today only about 60 percent do so. More significant is that only about 20 percent go into undergraduate teaching in liberal arts colleges; the rest go into universities where they have "both the opportunity, and the ambition, to teach graduate courses for which research training is the *sine qua non.*"

And interestingly enough, almost all the college presidents agree with the statement that "research training experience at the doctoral level, and particularly the dissertation, is desirable for the undergraduate teacher."

The other portion of the market-research argument is that few Ph. D.'s subsequently do research, or that it is not published if they do. Dr. Berelson says that the record shows that within 15 years after the doctorate from 80 to 90 percent of all recipients in the natural sciences will have published something besides their dissertation of sufficient stature to be included in a scholarly bibliographical source.

Dr. Berelson concludes that both major assumptions underlying the market-research argument are faulty: "fewer than 'most' are engaged in college teaching, and more than a 'few' publish research."

Now for the second charge: Are the wrong students allowed into the graduate schools, and does their training then lack sufficient breadth and proper training in how to teach? The first portion of this question is easy to answer; it is also academic, since at the present time every student who wants to go to graduate school *can* go somewhere.

It is true, however, that intellectual capacity is the major, if not sole, criterion by which students are consciously selected. Almost no one argues that this should not be so, but many point out that the qualities that make a good teacher include more than that. Many of these qualities, however, are not identifiable by testing; and in any event, final judgment on the student's suitability for teaching are made once they are in graduate school by their professors and departments. And so: "admit by intelligence and screen for other qualities later."

PROBLEM OF BREADTH

The problem of breadth is harder to tangle with. In the first place, as Dr. Berelson points out, it is often difficult or even impossible to learn from the critics how broad "breadth" is supposed to be.

Dr. Berelson asks why, if more breadth is wanted, isn't it provided? He says that a few facts of academic life provide the answers. People are worried because the doctoral program takes "too long." Covering more material in the same amount of time makes for less thorough training, yet "thoroughness of training is a prime desideratum." In addition, the pressure is toward more specialization because the body of knowledge is constantly growing. The conclusion is that radical innovations on a national scale to achieve more breadth are not feasible—nor are they necessarily desirable.

A criticism on which there is substantial agreement is that graduate schools do not teach students how to teach.

One thing that shall *not* be done about this, the arts and sciences faculty overwhelmingly agrees, is to have the schools of education provide training in teaching to the graduate students. This means that the work must be done in the graduate school or the undergraduate college where the young Ph.D. first teaches.

If the graduate schools are serious about wanting to improve the teacher training they give, the ways in which they may do so are clear. They may require a period of teaching of all candidates. They may also ensure that it does not drag on forever, since the training value can be realized in a short time. And they may give proper supervision and ensure that the assistants perform some of the duties they will actually have as teachers —planning course outlines, leading discussion groups, giving lectures—instead of being merely the "intellectual dishwashers" of the graduate school community.

If the preparation of college teachers is A Big Problem, whether enough of them will be produced is Another Big Question.

It comes to this, as Dr. Berelson sees it: Within a 15-year period our baccalaureate ranks will have doubled. But they have doubled or more every 15 years of this century—and doctorates have doubled every 10 years. In addition, Dr. Berelson points out, the colleges and universities have choices to make which will affect the situation. Raising the teacher-student ratio by one, for example, would make a difference of about 25,000 teachers at the anticipated 1970 level of enrolment. Dr. Berelson concludes: "The numbers problem in itself does not appear to justify major changes in the training program, nor to justify a shift of attention to quantity and away from quality . . . The numbers game is by no means lost."

Dr. Berelson also states, as a general proposition, that whether it wants it or not, the graduate school now has a responsibility of leadership in American education and even American life. And despite all its faults, he says, in far less than a century it has already brought "American research and scholarship to a position of world leadership and it has systematically furthered man's knowledge of himself and his world." •

TODAY, the organization in this country that employs the most Ph.D.'s is not a university, it is duPont. Industrial firms employ more Ph.D.'s today than all the liberal-arts colleges in the country put together.—*Bernard Berelson.*

An Objective Evaluation

Ungraded Primary Reading Program

MARY KING SKAPSKI

In

The Elementary School Journal

MORE and more elementary schools are replacing their first three grades with so-called ungraded primaries. In these units, groups of children who show about equal readiness for learning are allowed to progress through the primary work at rates appropriate to their ability.

In the ungraded primaries, learning is so paced that the child may experience success at every step of the way. Slow learners are not pushed into learning to read before they are ready. Gifted children spend as little time as possible on the extremely simple reading matter at the preprimer and primer levels and can be given a good deal of enrichment material. In short, the aim of the ungraded primary is to insure that provisions are made to meet individual differences.

Although teachers and administrators who are working in ungraded primaries feel that the children benefit greatly from the programs, there have been few objective evaluations of the results of instruction in ungraded primaries. The following study arose from an unusual opportunity to evaluate such a program.

For several years one public elementary school in Burlington, Vermont, has had an ungraded primary program in reading, while instruction in other subjects has been carried on under the traditional system.

At the beginning of the study, the Stanford Achievement Test, Primary Battery, was administered to all second-grade and third-grade pupils in this school; that is, to all children who were doing second-grade or third-grade work in subjects other than reading. The children's achievement in reading was then compared with achievement in arithmetic.

The study emphasized the difference in achievement in two situations: first, when ample provisions were made for individual differences, and second, when vir-

Mary King Skapski is a teacher in the Milton Public Schools, Vermont. Reported from The Elementary School Journal, *LXI (October 1960), 41–44.*

tually no such provisions were made. For this reason, it was decided to limit the comparison to the modal-age children, thus eliminating the children for whom provisions for individual differences were made in arithmetic through repeating or skipping a grade.

The Detroit Group Intelligence Test was administered to the children. The average intelligence quotient of the second-graders and third-graders in this school was 116. If the children were achieving in accordance with their ability, the average achievement should have been well above their grade placement. Such was the case in reading, in which children of every ability level were presumably receiving instruction at an appropriate level of difficulty.

The grade placement of the children at the time of testing was 2.5 (that is, fifth month of the second grade) for second-graders and 3.5 for third-graders. In reading, the achievement for *all* second-grade pupils was 3.2 and 4.7 for the third-graders. The achievement for modal-age second-graders was exactly the same as for all second-graders, 3.2; the achievement for modal-age third-graders was 4.8.

In arithmetic, all children, regardless of ability, were being given instruction at the level of their grade placement. The achievement of the children with this method of teaching was lower; 2.5 for the modal-age second-graders, 3.3 for the modal-age third-graders. Scores for all second- and third-graders were very close to the modal-age groups. Also, the spread of the arithmetic scores was much narrower than the spread of the reading achievement scores.

READING SCORES

Test scores also revealed that, in reading, the third-graders were achieving at a point further above their grade placement than the second-graders, who had spent one year less in the ungraded situation. This result is understandable, since nearly all the children started at the same point at the beginning of the first year in a primary unit.

Guilford's formula for the standard error of a difference in correlated data was used to find whether the differences between reading and arithmetic achievement at each grade level were statistically significant. Both were found to be very significant, the *t* ratio being 5.4 for the second-graders and 7.5 for the third-graders.

To determine whether the difference in achievement in the two subjects might have been due in part to the fact that learning of reading is very different from the learning of arithmetic, a second comparison was made. The same tests given in the ungraded primary school were administered to all second-grade and third-grade pupils in two other elementary schools in the same city. The average intelligence of the pupils and their socioeconomic backgrounds, the training and experience of their teachers, and the amount of time devoted to reading instruction in all three schools were comparable.

Since there was grouping on an ability basis within each grade in the two schools with traditional primaries, this second comparison was of two methods of providing for individual differences. The result showed that the children in the ungraded primary *were* reading at a higher level than the children in the traditional primaries.

While the study revealed that the children, on the average, were benefiting from an ungraded reading program, the question remained whether children of all ability levels were benefiting. To answer this question, the children were arbitrarily divided into three groups on the basis of intelligence quotients according to the Detroit Group Intelligence Test: average, ranging from 88 to 112; superior, ranging from 113 to 124; very superior, 125 and higher.

A comparison of reading and arithmetic achievement of children in their third year of ungraded reading instruction revealed that children of each ability level were doing considerably better in reading than in arithmetic. The difference was greatest for the very superior children. In arithmetic these children were achieving 3.8, exactly at the point at which instruction was being given. Reading achievement was found to be at the 5.8 grade level.

When a comparison at the three ability levels also was made with the two schools following the traditional graded program, again the ungraded primary children showed a higher level of reading achievement, and again, the difference was greatest for children of very superior intelligence.

The ungraded primary, then, benefits all children. Gifted children are not allowed to underachieve, nor are slow learners frustrated by repeated failure. All children progress from level to level, each child at his own rate. •

Reading Difficulties

- Bobby, in the first grade, selected a book from the library and was industriously reading the story, when the teacher noticed him. The teacher, to train him in proper reading habits, told him not to move his lips when he read to himself. Later, when he returned the book, she asked him how he liked it. "I don't know," he replied, "I couldn't hear myself read it."—Margaret Howes in *The Christian Science Monitor*.

- Jeff could not recognize the word *scream* in his reading despite many clues. I told him to cover the "s" and see what remained. Still no response. So I asked him, "What does your mother put in her coffee?" He replied, "Toast."—Vera Johansen in *NEA Journal*.

Teachers College Standards in Chemistry

LELAND L. WILSON
In Science Education

Leland L. Wilson is a member of the faculty at Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls. Reported from Science Education, *XLIV (October 1960), 260–62.*

THE lampooning of teachers colleges by various educational critics has been a favorite indoor sport in recent years. Any college with the word "teacher" in its name seems to have been automatically branded as academically disrespectable. The resulting unpopularity of the name is reflected in the rechristening of some two-thirds of the 300 teachers colleges which were named as such 25 years ago. The function of most of these institutions was not changed as a result of the new name.

Life magazine devoted most of the October 16, 1950, issue to education. One of the articles, "Who Teaches the Teachers?" by John W. Sperry, was filled with sweeping generalizations in condemnation of teachers colleges. For example, Mr. Sperry, in speaking of the teachers colleges he had visited in the South, Middle West, East, and Southwest, stated that "all were distinctly inferior to every liberal arts college or university I have ever seen." One of his concluding statements was, "As things stand now, the teachers being trained to instruct your children and mine are getting the worst college education of all."

A *New Republic* editorial by I. Peggy Moses on September 14, 1953, entitled, "Why We Have Poor Teachers" also relegated the teachers colleges to the basement of the academic world. Referring to the courses in teachers colleges, the author stated, ". . . even the best schools offer courses which are repetitive, lack intellectual depth, and emphasize teaching methods at the expense of subject matter." As for students in teachers colleges, Miss Moses stated, "Teachers colleges are certainly not instilling in their students a love of knowledge and academic scholarship. Although the students in teachers colleges vary widely in ability, most of them are not of the caliber to develop such a love of knowledge and appreciation of their subject matter on their own."

These are typical examples of the kind of criticism which has been leveled at teachers colleges and they could be duplicated many times from the literature of recent years. The replies to this kind of criticism have dealt largely in generalities. Little or nothing has been done to gather evidence which might provide a reliable basis for comparison of teachers colleges with other institutions.

How valid are these claims that teachers colleges lack any semblance of reasonable academic standards and that they provide inferior instruction for inferior students? Is such criticism usually based on objective evidence or is it merely an old cliché which has been used so often that it is tacitly accepted as fact? Are all teachers colleges characterized by low academic standards or do they, like other colleges, exhibit a broad spectrum of quality? Let us look at one bit of evidence concerning teachers college standards in the field of chemistry.

All the students completing the two-quarter course in general chemistry at Iowa State Teachers College are given an American Chemical Society Cooperative General Chemistry Test. The norms for this test are based on the scores of students in colleges other than teachers colleges who have completed two semesters of general chemistry.

The scores for 207 Iowa State Teachers College students taking the test were compiled for the eight-year period of 1950-57. The test scores reveal that the students from this teachers college performed very well in comparison with students from other types of colleges. Twenty-two percent of them ranked at or above the 90 percentile point and 79 percent ranked at or above the 50 percentile point on the national norms. It would not seem unreasonable to conclude that these students had chemistry teaching which was at least as good as that available to the majority of students in any other type of college. Furthermore, there is little evidence here that teachers-college students are inferior in ability.

While these scores have limited significance for the question of the quality of teachers colleges in general, they certainly do not substantiate the claims of such critics as were quoted above. One may wonder if the critics of teachers colleges have really made extensive investigations into the type of teaching being done, or has the technique of "guilt by association" been indiscriminately applied?

Teachers colleges have been content to accept a second-class status far too long and they have had what they were content to accept. The increased attention which is being focused on education, and the criticism which our system of education is receiving from many quarters, has given emphasis to the importance of better teacher training. Teacher-training institutions have a particularly heavy responsibility, not only to turn out more teachers, but to develop in such prospective teachers the kind of scholarship which will command respect everywhere. It seems that teachers-college science departments are now in a particularly favorable position to bring about changes in prevailing attitudes toward these institutions. •

Is Diagraming Worthwhile?

Research in Teaching Grammar and Usage

INGRID M. STROM

In Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University

Ingrid M. Strom is Assistant Professor of Education at Indiana University, Bloomington. Reported from Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, *XXXVI (September 1960), 6–9.*

WHAT conclusions can one draw from the abundance of research available in the fields of grammar and usage?

The research findings show clearly and overwhelmingly that direct methods of instruction, focusing on writing activities and the structuring of ideas, are more efficient in teaching sentence structure, usage, punctuation, and other related factors than are such methods as nomenclature drill, diagraming, and rote memorization of grammatical rules.

Research also reveals that a knowledge of classification grammar has little measurable effect on the ability to express ideas accurately or precisely in writing or speaking. Grammatical errors are individual matters and are best attacked through individual instruction. Children and adolescents improve their sentences by having many opportunities, with the guidance of the teacher, for structuring their own thoughts into their own sentences.

Many experimental studies concerned with the teaching of grammatical usage, sentence structure, and other problem areas in writing have been carried out over the years.

In one study, for example, Irwin O. Ash undertook to determine the degree to which a knowledge of technical grammar contributes not only to the correctness of written expression but also to the stylistic factors characteristic of a well-written composition. Participating in the study were pupils in three junior-high schools in West Virginia. The experimental group, stressing the style and content of composition, made more progress in sentence structure than did the control groups, emphasizing classificatory grammar. In all schools, pupils wrote compositions at the beginning and at the end of the study, as well as once each week. Ash found that certain phases of grammar and punctuation improved in many respects without much direct attack.

W. J. Klopp reported conclusions from another study in which a standardized grammar test was given to 13 tenth-grade English classes involving 336 pupils taught by seven teachers. The 80 pupils in the experimental classes were taught by means of selfadministering drills and tests on the most common grammatical errors. The remaining pupils were taught grammar in the traditional way—that is, by drilling intensively on grammatical rules and nomenclature. Analysis of the results revealed that pupils taught by the intensive-formal-grammar-drill method made better scores on the test measuring knowledge of formal grammar and relatively poorer ones on the test of applied grammar. In the experimental groups, pupils' scores were about the same on both the formal and the applied grammar tests. Adolescents who mastered grammatical rules failed to develop a relatively equal ability to apply the rules and principles in written work.

THE THOUGHT METHOD

Covering a period of four years and including 1,700 freshmen at North Carolina State College, an experiment by J. D. Clark revealed that students doing an increased amount of reading, with stress given to the comprehension of thought structured into sentences and paragraphs, made gains in grammar, usage, and other language techniques superior to those made by students having only formal instruction in grammar. In both the control and experimental groups, students wrote weekly themes of 300 to 400 words.

With 47 pairs of students in the ninth grade and 60 pairs in the eleventh grade in the Minneapolis and Bemidji, Minnesota, schools, Ellen Frogner carried out a carefully controlled experimental study of the relative effectiveness of the thought and grammatical approaches in teaching sentence structure. Adolescents who approached the problem of sentence structure from the standpoint of clear, effective expression of thought made higher scores on the tests of grammar and sentence structure than did those who used the grammatical approach. Furthermore, there was little difference between the two methods for superior students, except that certain pupils from the highest range of IQ scores profited more from the thought than from the grammar method. The thought method was definitely superior for all students with IQ scores below 105.

Two other research studies conducted on the elementary level by Percival Symonds and Prudence Cutright have implications for teaching in the secondary school. Two methods of attack on usage errors appear to produce better results than any others. One is to place both the right and wrong forms before the pupil so that he himself may make a conscious choice of the correct form in the light of some guiding principle which has been developed inductively in the classroom. The other is to give him much *oral* practice in the use of the correct forms. One reason children and adolescents make grammatical errors is that they hear so many of them in their home environment. Doing workbook exercises is comparatively ineffective because the process disregards sound. The chief factor in improving grammatical usage in both speaking and writing is hearing the right form frequently at school and elsewhere.

Since diagraming has traditionally been one of the methods most frequently used by the English teacher in teaching grammar, several investigators have studied the effectiveness of the method in furthering language growth.

Using two roughly equated classes of ninth-grade pupils, one with an enrolment of 45 and the other of 40, Kenneth Barghahn investigated the effects of sentence diagraming on reading comprehension and on English usage in speaking and writing. One group was given intensive drill in diagraming for six weeks; the other group continued its regular class work in English without any emphasis on diagraming or sentence analysis. Barghahn concluded that instruction in diagraming contributes little or nothing to comprehension in reading or to the more rapid acquisition of knowledge of correctness in usage. Barghahn's findings were confirmed in a later study conducted by Walter Barnett.

Harry A. Green has called attention to the weaknesses of the two studies mentioned. He points out that they are *static* rather than *dynamic*—that is, they measure the influence of diagraming skill on existing knowledge of usage and comprehension in reading. As a result, an experimental study by James Reese Stewart was undertaken in which he stressed dynamic factors. For 1,000 ninth-grade pupils in 20 school systems in Iowa, Illinois, and Minnesota, Stewart evaluated sentence diagraming as a method of teaching certain phases of composition, punctuation, grammatical information, and sentence structure. After the analysis of the findings, Stewart concluded that incidental learning of capitalization, punctuation, and grammatical usage is no more pronounced under an instructional program composed largely of diagraming exercises than it is under one employing composition exercises. Furthermore, sentence structure is taught as effectively by a composition method as it is by the diagraming of sentences.

Barnett, Barghahn, and Stewart were in agreement on another conclusion—that is, that practice in diagraming produces greater skill in diagraming.

Further light on the perennial problem of whether diagraming functions in English or not was shed by a recent study conducted by Anthony L. Tovatt and involving 150 adults. Ninety-six percent of the group was unable to diagram the sentence, "Practically all boys play baseball at a very early age." Only two of the six persons who could diagram the sentence stated that they actually applied diagraming skill to their own writing. Tovatt concluded that diagraming is a sterile skill. •

★ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

National Goals.—Late in November, the President's Commission on National Goals released its report. Its contents, concerning education, were neither startling nor new. In essence, they restated conclusions and projections which had been formulated by the White House Conference on Education in 1955 and the Rockefeller Report in 1958.

Nevertheless, the report deserves attention for it restates some conclusions which are of crucial importance to the future of the United States.

The report, commercially published in book form in mid-December including its 16 special background papers (Prentice-Hall, $1 paper; $3:50 regular), can best speak for itself:

"Among the important things that should be done are the following:

"Small and inefficient school districts should be consolidated, reducing the total number from 40,000 to about 10,000. The local school district remains the key to good public education. Local boards should be greatly strengthened.

"Every state should have a high-level board of education.

"Teachers' salaries at all levels must be improved.

"Two-year colleges should be within commuting distance of most high-school graduates.

"Graduate school capacity must be approximately doubled.

"Adult education should play a vital role, stressing a new emphasis on education throughout life.

"Annual public and private expenditure for education by 1970 must be approximately $40,000,000,000 – double the 1960 figure. It will then be 5 percent or more of the gross national product, as against 4 percent today."

Finally, the Commission called for federal scholarships, loans, and funds for research and for public schools in poor states.

Members of the panel were shown to be in disagreement on one touchy subject. One role of government is to stimulate changes of attitude . . . . The federal government should enforce the principle that federal funds shall not be disbursed to employers who discriminate on the basis of race. Similar policies should progressively be applied to federal grants for universities, hospitals, and airports and to federal housing programs.

"By 1970, discrimination in higher education should be entirely overcome. Every state must make progress in good faith toward desegregation of public schools."

Crawford Greenewalt, president of duPont, said he was disturbed by this suggestion. He wanted to be recorded as preferring to rely on education, persuasion, and law.

On the other hand, Dr. Clark Kerr, president of the University of California, and James R. Killian, Jr., chairman, Massachusetts Institute of Technology Corp., would prefer that all "discrimination (not only in higher education) should be entirely overcome by 1970 . . . . The moral and Constitutional rights of American citizens must take precedence over all other concerns." (George Meany, president of the AFL-CIO, said substantially the same thing.)

Peace Corps.—If conversation and letters of inquiry are any indication, the suggested Peace Corps, mentioned by President-elect Kennedy in his campaign speeches, has struck a most responsive chord.

The new President gave no details, and the best available source of information is S3675, a bill introduced in the Senate last June by Hubert Humphrey (D-Minn.). Provisions of this bill are in line with the campaign references to the project. It calls for a Peace Corps made up of skilled, dedicated, adaptable, physically fit, and politically and emotionally mature young men between the ages of 21½ and 32.

Applicants are to be selected on the basis of a physical examination, a written test, an oral interview, the recommendations of at least five references, and shall be confined to those who "possess the attributes of character and personality which would make him a good representative of this country in a foreign land." He also must be willing to serve in relatively primitive areas.

During the first year, not more than 500 members shall be selected and the size of the Corps may gradually be increased to not more than 5,000 members. Enlistment would be for a three-year period, the first year to be devoted to training and orientation courses. Service and pay in the Peace Corps would be somewhat analogous to military service. Except during time of war or during a period of national emergency declared by the President, members will be exempt from the requirements of peacetime military service.

Expectations are that the bill will be re-introduced in the 87th Congress.

Other Proposals.—Other proposals to watch in the new Congress are these:

About 500 scholarships for students from Asia, Africa, and Latin America, with attendance concentrated at the Universities of Hawaii and Puerto Rico. The bill is designed to counteract the recent opening of a special school for foreigners in Moscow. Rep. Adam Clayton Powell (D-N.Y.) has said that he agrees with Mr. Kennedy on the need for this. Congressman Powell is the prospective chairman of the House Committee on Education and Labor.

A broad federal support proposal, probably very close to last year's HR 22, the Metcalf bill as reported by the Committee on Labor and Education. Rep. Frank Thompson (D-N.J.) is known to be pushing this.

Action also is expected in regard to federal aid for academic facilities in higher education, and the addition of scholarships to N.D.E.A. or even as a separate measure before N.D.E.A. expires.

Motivation for Learning.—The American Cancer Society recently completed a survey of 22,000 teenagers of Portland, Oregon. The study has important educational implications, the most important of which is that it is not enough to say "Don't."

ACS sought to discover new techniques, or the effectiveness of old techniques, to persuade youngsters not to smoke. Findings were that it was not particularly helpful to admonish the youngsters, to remind them of ill effects, to tell them of the horrors of stained teeth, unattractive breath, or impairment of athletic skills.

Instead, ACS found that the best technique was to give the youngsters all the facts about the long-term risks of smoking—the threat of lung cancer, for example—and then to leave it up to them to make the final decision.

Other findings of the study show that approximately one-fourth of the boys and one-eighth of all the girls smoked regularly at least once a week. Incidence of smokers was highest among children in families where both parents smoked, and lowest in families in which neither parent had been a smoker. Boys who participated in school athletics smoked less, said ACS in its paper, prepared for the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

Pressure by Parents.—Parents who are determined to send a son or daughter to a "prestige" college often defeat their own purpose. So says Charles E. Bish of the National Education Association, head of a special project on the academically talented.

He warns that some parents, in their zeal to send their youngster to one of the "name" schools, may actually cause him to retreat to a lower level of achievement in order to solve his problems.

"If Johnny is constantly under pressure to make nothing less than all A's," says Dr. Bish, "he may use that fine mind of his to figure out it's better to get poor grades . . . and stay entirely out of the running."

Competition among top students for entrance to "name" colleges, which is already keen, will increase in the next decade, according to Dr. Bish. "To avoid heartache, parents should recognize that their children can get an education of the highest quality in many state universities which will be able to handle increased enrolments."

Growth in Research. — Many books have been written about the nature of a university. Its function and dimensions have changed and will continue to change. In U. S. practice, however, the research function has come into increasing importance, to the point that many universities now regard their three major tasks as being close to balance: teaching, public service, and research.

A new study by the U. S. Office of Education illustrates the growth of research expenditures. Federal contracts and services alone, from 1953 to 1959, increased 236 percent in a typical, large state university selected by Dr. J. Kenneth Little for a thorough study.

Other evidence of the close relationship with the federal government came to light when there were found to be 180 students on fellowships and 517 assistantships in connection with federally sponsored research.

Ethics Revisited.—Many a teacher has been confused by the existence of more than one code of ethics for his profession. Not that a single code would solve all problems, but it would at least serve to decrease the area of confusion.

Steps are now under way to seek a single code to set standards for the education profession. Isabel Epley, chairman of the NEA Ethics Committee, is heading up a survey of teacher opinion with a view toward establishing a single code and, possibly of even greater significance, "to adopt procedures for its enforcement."

No timetable has been announced, and the procedure promises to be long, especially with conflicting codes of ethics now in use in several of the state education associations.

***Panorama* Expands.**—*Panorama*, quarterly magazine of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession, is growing. It started less than two years ago with separate editions in English, French, and Spanish, with an added starter in Japanese.

Increasingly successful, the digest-type magazine is now considering editions in Burmese and Malay, according to Editor Sam Levenson.

Earlier this year *Panorama* was awarded the Eleanor Fishburn Award for its outstanding contribution to international understanding. Sponsors of the award, the Washington Chapter of the Educational Press Association, singled out a special issue which dealt with education in Africa.

Names in the News.—Lawrence Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education, has resigned to become assistant executive secretary for educational services for the National Education Association. He had been Commissioner since 1956.

Governor Abraham Ribicoff of Connecticut has been named Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare by President-Elect Kennedy. Present HEW Secretary Flemming has not announced his plans for the future.

• Educational News •

Changes in Superintendencies:

Lima, Ohio: **Harry E. Martin**, formerly high-school principal at Lima, has been named superintendent.

Cleveland Heights, Ohio: **A. B. Harvey**, formerly assistant superintendent, has been named successor to **O. E. Hill**, who died Nov. 3.

Fairbanks, Alaska: **James C. Ryan**, superintendent for the last 10 years, formerly territorial commissioner of education for Alaska, has announced his retirement, effective at the close of the school year.

Needham, Mass.: **William M. Powers**, formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded **Derwood A. Newman**, now executive secretary, Massachusetts Association of School Committees.

College Presidents:

Drew University, Madison, N.J.: **Robert Fisher Oxnam**, president of Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N.Y., has been named successor to **Fred G. Holloway**, who has been elected a bishop of the Methodist church.

Southwest Missouri State College, Springfield: **Roy Ellis** has announced his retirement, effective Aug. 31.

Hunter College, New York City: **John J. Meng**, formerly dean of administration, has been named president.

Bard College, Annandale-on-Hudson, N.Y.: **The Rev. Reamer Kline** has succeeded **James H. Case, Jr.**, as president.

Teacher-Training Institutions:

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.: **James W. Colmey**, formerly assistant director, custodian services, Dade County, Miami, Fla., has been named professor of education.

Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind.: **William E. Engbretson**, formerly assistant to the president, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, is now dean of the newly established school of education.

Other Changes and Appointments:

Laurence B. Johnson, assistant executive secretary, New Jersey Education Association, and editor, *NJEA Review*, has announced his retirement, effective in July, after 26 years on the NJEA staff.

Charles F. Carroll, North Carolina state superintendent of public instruction, has been elected president of Council of Chief State School Officers.

Harold B. Allen, professor of English, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, has been named president of the National Council of Teachers of English.

Logan Wilson, chancellor of the University of Texas, has been nominated as president of the American Council on Education, succeeding **Arthur S. Adams**, who will retire this spring. The nomination will be voted on at a special meeting of the Council members on Jan. 25.

Recent Deaths:

Charles J. Anderson, dean emeritus of the University of Wisconsin school of education, at the age of 80.

William Dodge Lewis, editor-in-chief of John C. Winston Co., and author of more than 40 English textbooks, at the age of 90.

Stuart G. Noble, emeritus professor of education, Tulane University of Louisiana, New Orleans, at the age of 74.

Physical Fitness

Physical comparisons between British and American young people reveal a "very poor physical picture in this nation," according to a study recently released by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER).

The study showed British boys exceeding U.S. boys in such tests as arm strength, abdominal endurance, speed and agility, and speed and endurance for sustained activity. Only in arm power (throwing) did Americans surpass the British. In fact, at ages 10 and 11, British girls exceeded U.S. boys in endurance for sustained activity.

Airborne TV Ready

On January 30, the Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction (MPATI) will begin its demonstration period of telecasts of instruction courses on video tape from an airplane flying high over Indiana to schools in that state and and parts of Illinois, Kentucky, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin.

In this initial phase of the experiment, 14 series of telecasts will be transmitted on two channels for three hours a day, four days a week.

Reports gathered from superintendents and principals of local school systems in the telecasting region show that 526,518 pupils in 16,939 TV-equipped classrooms, assisted by 16,221 teachers, plan to preview the courses in early 1961.

"This total," states John E. Ivey, Jr., president of the MPATI, "far exceeds expectations. The number of pupils represents more than 10 percent of the 5,000,000 students we estimate are within the range of the airplane's signals. We had not anticipated such a large proportion would participate during the demonstration period. This is a testing period designed to allow schools to test the signal and the educational content prior to participating in the first full academic year starting in September 1961."

Of the 14 courses to be offered this spring, eight are on the elementary level, four are designed for high-school use, and two are at the college level.

The elementary courses include: arithmetic for grade 6, art for both upper and lower elementary grades, conversational French, music for both lower and upper elementary grades, and science for grades 3 and 4 and grades 5 and 6.

The high-school courses are: American government and civics, American history, world history and geography, and biology for grades 9 and 10.

The college courses are the Continental Classroom series on modern algebra and modern chemistry.

The MPATI airplane will fly at 23,000 feet over Montpelier, Ind. An identically-equipped second aircraft will stand by on the ground, ready to take off if the first should experience mechanical difficulties. The MPATI program is based at Purdue University, Lafayette.

Asks N.D.E.A. Extension

Proposals to extend the provisions of the National Defense Education Act were included among the resolutions adopted by the Council of

Chief State School Officers at its annual meeting in Santa Fe, N.M., in November.

Notable among the changes requested was that recommending that English, history, geography, economics, and government be added to the areas for which materials and equipment can be purchased with federal funds. The law now limits the areas to science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages.

The resolution also stated: "The Council believes that the interests of American public elementary and secondary education will be served best by permanent, broad-purpose federal *support* rather than by limited, emergency federal *aid* for specific purposes."

Charles F. Carroll of North Carolina is the new president of the association, succeeding Oliver Hodge of Oklahoma. Frederick M. Raubinger, New Jersey, was named president-elect. He will succeed to the presidency next year.

AASA Election

MEMBERS of the American Association of School Administrators are now voting by mail on their 1961 president-elect and vice-president.

Nominees for president-elect are Evart W. Ardis, director of the Bureau of Appointments and Occupational Information, University of Michigan; Alfred W. Beattie, superintendent, Allegheny County Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.; and Irby B. Carruth, superintendent of schools, Austin, Tex.

The president-elect will take office Mar. 15 and will succeed to the presidency in 1962.

The New York Strike

NEW York City ended its first teachers strike on Nov. 8, the day after it began.

The strike, called by the United Federation of Teachers, involved the city's 837 public schools. Slightly more than 250 were picketed.

Leaders of the UFT claimed that 15,000 teachers were on strike. John J. Theobold, New York school superintendent, reported, however, that only about 4,600 were out. The union claims that its membership numbers 10,000 of the city's 40,000 teachers.

UFT delegates voted on Nov. 8 to accept an offer from the Board of Education and return to work. The board had guaranteed, with the backing of Mayor Robert F. Wagner, that no reprisals would be taken against the striking teachers if they returned to work the next day. Superintendent Theobold had previously threatened to invoke the state's Condon-Wadlin Antistrike Law, which provides automatic dismissal for public employes who strike. This law has never been legally tested in New York City.

The union is seeking duty-free lunch periods, more sick pay, and higher salaries. The school board announced that it already had agreed in principle to two other demands—a union check-off system and steps toward collective bargaining.

Study Technology Impact

THE "technological revolution" now under way in education will be the subject of an 18-month study launched in November by the National Education Association under a $103,000 contract with the U.S. Office of Education.

James D. Finn, professor of education at the University of Southern California, will direct the project, which will study the impact of TV, teaching machines, language laboratories, and other audio-visual materials on classrooms and teachers.

Meet Mr. Sage

A NEW personality has appeared on the Pittsburgh, Pa., scene. He is Mr. Sage, the letters in his name representing the slogan: Support Action for Good Education.

Mr. Sage, according to Stanley R. March, director, division of information services, Pittsburgh Schools, will be used in newspapers, radio, and TV to inform the people of Pittsburgh about their public-school system—new developments in the schools, the schools problems, and how these problems can be solved.

New Publication

A NEW senior-high-school weekly classroom magazine called *Our Times* is now being published by American Education Publications, Middletown, Conn.

The new publication, designed to be used in both social studies and English classes, is written to give students insight into our present society by going beyond the "news" into the cultural trends that create the headlines.

"Meet the Professor"

A SERIES of half-hour telecasts is scheduled to start January 29 over the ABC television network. Each of the 13 programs will include a profile of an outstanding teacher, his campus, and his community.

Cooperating with ABC in the production are the Association for Higher Education and NEA.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Jan. 9-12, White House Conference on Aging, Washington, D.C.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Feb. 11-15, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Detroit, Mich.

Feb. 22-25, American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 22-25, American Association of of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 25-28, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, San Francisco, Calif.

Mar. 5-8, Association for Higher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 11-14, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, St. Louis, Mo.

Mar. 12-16, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 18-22, Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, Atlantic City, N.J.

Mar. 25-28, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, Philadelphia, Pa.

New Educational Materials

Audio-Visual Techniques in Teaching Foreign Languages. Theodore Huebener. New York: New York University Press, 1960. Pp. xi + 163. $3.25.

This book, designed as a practical handbook for the teacher of foreign languages, covers the use of audio-visual materials and equipment for instruction from the lowest grades to college. Not only the latest and more elaborate devices are described, including the tape recorder, television, and language laboratories, but also the more simple devices, which, the author declares, have not been fully exploited.

The author describes procedures in general terms for each device and then gives detailed outlines for specific lessons. Illustrative lessons are provided in French, German, Italian, Latin, and Spanish.

The book contains a 35-page appendix, which includes an up-to-date bibliography and a list of audio-visual materials available.

The School Bus Law. Theodore Powell. Middletown, Conn.: Wesleyan University Press, 1960. Pp. xi + 334. $5.00.

This is a thorough, competent reporting job on a highly controversial social issue. It also is a timely book. The personalities that figured prominently in the recent national election also were engaged in the struggles surrounding the issue of public-school bus transportation for parochial-school students.

The author signals the content and style of the book with the following first paragraph:

"Airline stewardesses are taught to avoid discussion of four topics with passengers: sex, religion, politics, and danger. This book is devoted to discussing the last three."

The book tells the story of what happened in one state, Connecticut, and in doing so examines the whole picture of the school-bus controversy.

Education and Manpower. Edited by Henry David. New York: Columbia University Press, 1960. Pp. xvi + 326. $5.00.

This is a selection of educational materials from four of the seven published volumes and many of the papers published by members of the National Manpower Council.

The selections reflect a distinctive approach to some of the critical issues in education today. Education in the United States is examined with a human resource approach.

This approach helps illuminate many of the connections between education and employment, potential and performance, school and society, and this approach also contributes to a deeper understanding of the relations between education and other social and economic concerns.

A comprehensive report covering many of the professions and trades, the book is well documented – incorporating a great deal of statistical information with the text.

The concerns and aims of the National Manpower Council are stated in a foreword by Erwin D. Canham, chairman.

Teaching the Mentally Retarded Child. Natalie Perry. New York: Columbia University Press, 1960. Pp. xv + 282. $6.00.

This book discusses thoroughly the

special qualifications needed in teaching mentally retarded children, with special emphasis on the need for patience.

A variety of suggestions for both parents and teachers are offered, including not only such things as school schedules but also specific suggestions for making everything from a paper lantern to a coat rack. Directions for making the projects are clear and complete.

The appendix presents sample forms for recording and measuring the progress of the mentally retarded student and a bibliography of appropriate teaching materials.

Working with Superior Students: Theories and Practices. Edited by Bruce Shertzer. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1960. Pp. xiii + 370. $5.95.

This book is concerned with theories and practices for identifying, guiding, and motivating the superior secondary-school student.

The content is selected from papers presented at the 1958 and 1959 conferences on the guidance and motivation of superior and talented students, sponsored by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

The book includes sections on current research in the area of the gifted pupil, the identification of talent, program organization, guidance services, the teacher's role, community participation in talent development programs, and blueprints of four successful action programs used by schools.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED: ELEMENTARY

Kon-Tiki. Thor Heyerdahl. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1960. Pp. 165. $4.95. A special color edition for young people. Beautifully illustrated.

Judging Student Progress. (Second Edition.) R. Murray Thomas. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1960. Pp. x + 518. $5.50.

Teaching Music in the Elementary Grades. New York City Board of Education Curriculum Bulletin No. 5, 1960. Pp. vii + 141. Available from New York City Publication Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N.Y. $1.00.

On Their Own in Reading. (Revised Edition.) William S. Gray. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1960. Pp. 256. $3.10. A new edition of this well-known work on word analysis.

A to Z Phonics; A Teaching Guide to the Use of A to Z Phonics Charts. Dorothy E. Cooke. Darien, Conn.: The Educational Publishing Corporation, 1960. Pp. 127. $2.95.

SECONDARY

Teaching Guide for the Earth and Space Science Course. Prepared by Pennsylvania Earth and Space Science Course Advisory Committee. Washington, D.S.: National Aviation Education Council, 1960. Pp. vi + 103. $1.00. Designed for junior-high-school level.

The Teaching of Secondary Mathematics. (Third Edition.) Charles H. Butler and F. Lynwood Wren. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 624. $7.50.

The First Northwest Passage. Walter O'Meara. **Washington Irving.** Anya Seton. **Lafayette in America.** André Maurois. **Robert E. Lee.** Jonathan Daniels. **The Birth of Texas.** William W. Johnson. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960. $1.68 each. New titles in the North Star Books series.

Breakthroughs in Science. Isaac Asimov. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960. Pp. 197. $4.00. Designed for grade levels 5-12.

COLLEGE

Higher Education in the United States; The Economic Problems. Edited by Seymour E. Harris. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960. Pp. 252. $5.50.

Governance of Colleges and Universities. John J. Corson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960. Pp. vii + 209. $5.50.

How to Get into College. (Revised Edition.) Frank H. Bowles. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 185. $2.95.

The Campus and the People. M. M. Chambers. Danville, Ill.: The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc., 1960. Pp. 75. Organization, support, and control of higher education in the U.S. in the 1960's. $1.80.

How to Study and Take Exams. Lincoln Pettit. New York: John F. Rider Publisher, Inc., 1960. Pp. vii + 81. $1.00.

GUIDANCE

Modern Foreign Languages; A Counselor's Guide. Marjorie C. Johnston, Ilo Remer, and Frank L. Sievers. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 20, 1960. Pp. 67. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. $.30.

Careers in Highway Traffic Safety. National Commission on Safety Education, NEA, 1960. Pp. 61. Available from National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. $1.00.

Do Your Dreams Match Your Talents? Vance Packard. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1960. Pp. 43. $.50.

GENERAL

International Yearbook of Education, 1959. Unesco. New York: Columbia University Press, 1960. Pp. 550. $5.50.

Approval and Accreditation of Public Schools; Responsibilities and Services of State Departments of Education. William B. Rich. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin OE-20013, 1960. Pp. ix + 40. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. $.40.

High Spots in State School Legislation, January 1-August 1, 1960. NEA Research Report 1960-R12. Pp. 46. Available from National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. $.50.

Introduction to Physical Education. Ray O. Duncan and Helen B. Watson. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1960. Pp. v + 204. $4.00.

Adult Education in Colleges and Universities. A. A. Liveright. **Liberal Adult Education.** Harry L. Miller. Chicago: The Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, 1960. Pp. 50. Single copies free.

A Primer of Social Casework. Elizabeth Nicholds. New York: Columbia University Press, 1960. Pp. xiii + 181. $4.50.

School Plant Management; Organizing the Maintenance Program. R. N. Finchum. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 15, 1960. Pp. xi + 98. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. $.50.

Problem-Solving Methods in Science Teaching. Lester C. Mills and Peter M. Dean. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960. Pp. viii + 88. $1.50. One of the Science Manpower Project monographs.

Teaching about the United Nations in the United States; 1956-59 Report. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 18, 1960. Pp. vi + 96. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. $.45.

The Lamp Lighters; Women in the Hall of Fame. Marguerite Vance. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 254. $3.50.

Education of the Slow-Learning Child. (Third Edition.) Christine P. Ingram. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1960. Pp. vi + 390. $5.50.

How to Make Athletic Equipment. Joel W. Carter. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1960. Pp. v + 390. $6.75.

Toward Better International Understanding; A Manual for Teachers. New York City Board of Education Curriculum Bulletin No. 4, 1960. Pp. xvi + 253. Available from New York City Publications Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N.Y. $1.50.

Belisarius; Young General of Byzantium. Glanville Downey. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 192. $3.00.

Learn While You Sleep; The Theory and Practice of Sleep-Learning. David Curtis. New York: Libra Publishers, 1960. Pp. 126. $3.00.

Helping the Trainable Mentally Retarded Child. Bernice B. Baumgartner. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960. Pp. xii + 71. $1.00. A handbook for teachers, parents, and administrators.

Teaching Map and Globe Skills. New York City Board of Education Curriculum Bulletin No. 6, 1960. Pp. 41. Available from New York City Publication Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N.Y. $.50.

Throw Stone; The First American Boy 25,000 Years Ago. E. B. Sayles and Mary Ellen Stevens. Chicago: Reilly & Lee, 1960. Pp. 142. $3.75.

Songs of the Civil War. Compiled and edited by Irwin Silber. Piano and guitar arrangements by Jerry Silverman. New York: Columbia University Press, 1960. Pp. 385. $7.50.

Wonder-Workers of the Insect World. Hiram J. Herbert. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 160. $3.00.

Emotional Aspects of School Desegregation; A Report by Psychiatrists. New York: Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 1960. Pp. 48. $.50.

A Student Manual for Methods of Teaching. G. D. McGrath. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1960. Pp. x + 196. $2.95.

AUDIO-VISUALS

Educators Guide to Free Tapes, Scripts, and Transcriptions. (Seventh

---

READER INFORMATION SERVICE

Send in this coupon to get additional information easily and quickly from the advertisers in this issue and about the materials listed in "New Educational Materials."

☐ **Houghton Mifflin New Books**

☐ **Prakken Publications**

I would also like more information on the following books and other materials listed in this issue:

....

....

Name .... **Position** ....

Address J-61

Edition.) Edited by Walter A. Wittich and Gertie H. Halsted. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1961. Pp. xvi + 203. $5.75.

Free and Inexpensive Educational Aids. Thomas J. Pepe. New York: Dover Publications, Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 289. $1.35. Includes more than 1500 books, films, charts, posters, slides, and booklets.

Interaction; Television Public Affairs Programming at the Community Level. New York: Television Information Office, 1960. Pp. 287. $3.00. Includes chapters on formal education, adult education, practical arts and skills, and science and technology.

13 Films From Africa. A series of 16mm color-sound movies produced on location in Africa. Available from Birad Corporation, 1564 Broadway, New York 36, N.Y. $125 each, color; $50, b & w.

A Language Laboratory Handbook. Douglas Heath. Boyds, Md.: Language Training Aids, Inc., 1960. $3.00. Tells how to plan, build, and operate a modern language lab.

Understanding Electricity. A series of seven color filmstrips for later elementary and junior-high grades. The Jam Handy Organization, Detroit, Mich. $36.50 for the series; $5.75 each filmstrip.

First the Ear. A 30-minute tape recording on the effectiveness of electronic classrooms in teaching foreign languages. Available from Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Company, Box 3300, St. Paul 6, Minn. $1.50.

General Science Visual Transparencies. A series of 50 general science visuals for grades 3-6 for use with overhead projectors. Creative Visuals of Dallas, 2020½ Farrington St., Dallas 7, Tex.

Watch For These Eight New Books In '61

EDUCATION IN AMERICAN SOCIETY: An Introduction to the Study of Education • Tyrus Hillway • approximately 500 pages

DEMOCRATIC SUPERVISION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 2nd Edition • Harl R. Douglass, Rudyard K. Bent, Charles W. Boardman • approximately 450 pages

THE TEACHING OF ARITHMETIC, 3rd Edition • Herbert F. Spitzer • approximately 450 pages

THE ECONOMICS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION • Charles S. Benson • approximately 525 pages

TEACHING THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILD • Lillian M. Logan and Virgil G. Logan • approximately 850 pages

PHILOSOPHY AND THE AMERICAN SCHOOL: An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education • Van Cleve Morris • approximately 550 pages

SOCIAL ISSUES IN PUBLIC EDUCATION • John A. Bartky • approximately 350 pages

STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK IN HIGHER EDUCATION • Kate Hevner Mueller • approximately 475 pages

HOUGHTON MIFFLIN COMPANY • Boston
New York Atlanta Geneva Dallas Palo Alto

15 APR 1961

BOOKS, BOOKLETS, AND CHARTS

For Your Industrial-Education Department

Modern School Shop Planning

The only book on the market that completely covers the planning problems of school shops—equipment lists, safety factors, principles of purchasing, standards, suggested shop layouts, etc.

184 Pages **$3.85**

Machinists' Ready Reference

Compiled by C. Weingartner. Contains 100 of the most used tables and charts. Pocket-sized. The handiest, neatest machinists' handbook yet devised. Well indexed. **$1.50**

Diamond Dust

By Tom Diamond. A collection of tongue-in-cheek articles emphasizing practical pedagogical points. Light reading-with-a-purpose. 112 pages. **$2.00**

Campbell's Drafting Time Savers

"Machine Drafting Data," a four-page quick-reference chart. "The Dimensioning of Machine Drawings," a 20-page booklet giving information on rules of dimensioning.

$1.00 each item for 1-5 copies; $.85 each, 6-10 copies; $.75 each, 11-50 copies; $.60 each. 51 or more copies.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

On-approval copies of these publications available to administrators and supervisors for 10-day examination.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

330 Thompson Street
Ann Arbor, Michigan

The Education Digest

CONTENTS

Our Universities: Unguided Missiles . . . Think 1
Team Teaching for the Elementary School
Educational Leadership 5
Length of the School Year . Year-Round School 8
Issues and Trends in Public School Finance
New Directions in Financing Public Schools 11
Do We Push Children? . . . Childhood Education 15
Recommendation 21 . . . . The Clearing House 18
Class Size in Elementary Schools
NEA Research Bulletin 20
Speech Is a Social Force . . . . NEA Journal 23
Looking Ahead in Reading
Education Looks Ahead 26
Curriculum Benefits from Industrial Arts
Illinois School Board Journal 29
Out-of-School Activities and Teacher Competence
The Nation's Schools 32
Calculus in the Secondary School
The Mathematics Teacher 35
Publishing Your Book
West Virginia School Journal 38
Le Mort de Core? . . . . . . Phi Delta Kappan 40
A Sequential Program in Composition
The English Journal 42
Word Frequency Applied to Stenography
Journal of Business Education 46
Decision Making . . . . . . Social Education 48
Guidance Institutes—N.D.E.A.
The Personnél and Guidance Journal 51
With Education in Washington 54
Educational News 58
New Educational Materials 61

EDNL. & PSYL. LIBRARY

XXVI February 1961 Number 6

THE EDUCATION DIGEST STAFF

LAWRENCE W. PRAKKEN, Editor and Publisher
JEROME C. PATTERSON, Managing Editor
WARREN R. GOOD, Associate Editor
OLIVER E. HANNINEN, Assistant Editor
BURLEY L. HENDRICKS, Assistant Editor
BARBARA N. LEAKE, Circulation Manager

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

THOMAS D. BAILEY, Superintendent, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida
NATT B. BURBANK, Superintendent of Schools, Boulder, Colorado
JOHN S. CARTWRIGHT, Superintendent of Schools, Allentown, Pennsylvania
ARTHUR F. COREY, Executive Secretary, California Teachers Association, Burlingame
LYMAN V. GINGER, Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington
PHILIP J. HICKEY, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis, Missouri
HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, Chief, Elementary Schools Section, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
L. S. MICHAEL, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois
FRED RAUBINGER, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey
JAMES E. RUSSELL, Secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.
GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Principal, The Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut
RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington
DONALD E. TOPE, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene
HENRY I. WILLETT, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

MEMBER OF

EDUCATIONAL
PRESS
ASSOCIATION
OF
AMERICA

Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., Lexington 2-0020. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 818 Waukegan Road, Glenview, Ill., PArk 4-0800. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 711 S. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1961 by Lawrence W. Prakken

Volume XXVI FEBRUARY 1961 Number 6

Choking in Its Own Traditions

Our Universities: Unguided Missiles

JACQUES BARZUN

In Think

Jacques Barzun is Dean of Faculties and Provost at Columbia University, New York, and author of House of Intellect. *Reported by permission from* Think, *XXVI (November 1960), 15–18. (Copyright 1960 by Jacques Barzun.)*

NEXT to hospitals, American colleges and universities are the worst administered private establishments in the land. Some faculty members might dispute this ranking and argue that academia deserves first place. At any rate, it is more and more accepted that our private institutions for higher education are poorly managed.

In the contemporary prosperity, the universities have shared yet have lost ground. Plant and services have deteriorated; faculty and administrative salaries have lagged. Perpetual anxiety has become the administrator's lot, while dissatisfaction and restlessness assail the faculties. The trustees, more bewildered than usual, try conscientiously to "do something," but look on helplessly at the vaulting costs and amoebic expansion of an enterprise where their customary ways of judging performance, economy, and risks do not seem to apply.

The institution itself, fitfully controlled from within, is impelled chiefly by external forces. Government, industry, foundations, and vulgar notions of prestige and public relations have caused it to lose the sense of its true place and form.

How has this situation come about? What do we know of its origins? This much: Unlike manufacturing, the act of teaching cannot be tested by reference to output and sales, or even be analyzed mechanically. The arrangement of courses and programs is consequently chancy: none is wholly good and none wholly bad, though some are visibly worse than others. Only to a slight degree can the teacher discover what it is in himself that is effective, though, again, he and others can often discern what is futile. There is, in short, no method, technique, or curriculum that works by formula. The brilliant scheme of one decade is a dull routine in the next—no one knows why. This is why teachers who are busy revolutionizing their own subject matter, tend to be conservative about its teaching. Since no one can point with assurance to the element that works the magic, it is always rash to throw out the mixture that contains it.

TEACHING AND RESEARCH

And what is true of teaching goes also for research. Both are emanations of the personality, over which the will has no control. You might as well ask a man to change his voice or his handwriting on the strength of a faculty vote as to ask him to turn from a quiet investigator to a lively lecturer, from a textual scholar to a broad imaginative builder of syntheses, from an abstracted mathematical thinker to an open-eyed counselor of the young.

Add to these incommensurables the momentum that keeps an institution famous or obscure long after these ratings are justified, and you see why the performance of a university cannot be gaged like that of a business law firm, or political party. This means that any school, program, or person similarly eludes judgments of efficiency. When such judgments have to be passed, from sheer economic necessity, they should always be regarded as crude and tentative and should be quickly reversed when a competent teacher and scholar, close to the situation, declares them invalid.

Yet this grass roots opinion loses much of its authority when taken in the mass. What is more, the generalizing power of the faculty mind, the moral feelings attached to education and the pursuit of truth, the corresponding impatience with the petty demands of the registrar, the bursar, and the budget committee—the whole needless interference of the busybodies called the Administration—jointly lead faculties to scorn practical devices and repress their knowledge of such procedures as survive their unconscious sabotage. It becomes a point of honor not to know how a certain bureaucratic goal is to be reached, and thus prolong the irritation felt at not reaching it. Only a small minority acknowledges, for temperamental or other reasons, the need for academic government.

It is not that the majority is indifferent or irrational—far from it. But because of increasing numbers and specialization, scholars have lost the opportunity and art of selfgovernment; in their preoccupation with research they have forgotten how to transact business. When they meet to discuss a difficulty calling for a working, not a paper compromise, or for a choice of a lesser risk, or for setting up a bit of machinery, they proceed with misplaced caution and excessive tenderness for imaginary "feelings."

At the same time, managerial

devices as such are taboo. It is much nobler to seek out and discuss the "philosophy" behind any proposal. This leads to rhetorical oppositions that leave the difficulty standing.

Given this lack of sympathy with the very idea of an institutional structure, it is hard to imagine how the shortcomings of the modern university can be corrected. I make below 10 concrete suggestions; their force will depend on an accompanying change of mind.

TEN SUGGESTIONS

I list some ungenteel steps and devices that the modern university might profit from. Without such props to the unified consciousness which it has lost, it can only look forward to decay.

1. Establish in all academic departments a proper secretariat, including any appropriate business equipment.

At the present time, faculty members do far too much of their own clerical work, and do it badly. The teacher today is as a doctor without a nurse or a secretary, and one of the lures of the research grant is that it provides this help. In short, the clerical revolution has not yet broken out on the campus, and it is high time it should.

2. Simplify and stiffen existing arrangements for what I call administering the dose.

There should be fewer choices within programs, in which custom tailoring has gone on too long and too far. A university is not a hospital, and it is weak and antisocial to yield to every individual demand as if each student were an invalid.

There should be closer adherence to the written rule when it exists—this, not for the purpose of making life harder for students and faculties, but rather for making clearer their common destiny.

3. Resist specialization in the sense of *public* specialization.

Why is a new course offered each time a man branches off into a new possibility of knowledge? For example, Sinology formerly enabled a man to teach all about China; now 30 men would be needed to teach one undergraduate major. One asks, What are library books for?

4. Adapt courses to stated purposes, and thereby judge departmental offerings comparatively.

Excessive course loads can be reduced by concentrating all the knowledge that warrants teaching into short courses of 10 or 12 lectures. As regards teaching, redefine the duties of appointees, stop fomenting pointless research (or rather publication), and break, if possible, the Ph.D. racket. Every teacher should be a scholar—is he? That is the only question to answer.

5. By a steady, systematic disclosure of proposals, problems, and changes, create on campus a *public opinion* which will help decide and carry out such resolves as:

To extend or not to extend student facilities. How far must we give students a full life at the expense of a full mind?

To accept or reject new research projects, buildings, and the like, in relation to the question, Do they serve teaching?

To retain or drop an activity (or even a school) that has become a drain on all resources—time, energy, money, public attention. A university must use the right of selfpreservation against dropsical enlargement.

6. After full disclosure, make similarly systematic efforts to recapture the president.

He is needed for internal guidance, not for social activities. Alumni, donors, foundations, government, and industry are not to become oriental potentates requiring flattery by sycophants and beggars. The dignity of the university lies right there—in sticking to its job and getting the freely given help of those who say they need and admire its workings.

7. Set a limit to competition for teachers and students.

It now costs $300 to get one student, and untold disruptive effort to get one teacher. The ethics of offers and inducements has broken down, if there ever was one. Competing for students when places are too few is an economic paradox of the first magnitude. Brochures and "blurbury" reduce the stature of the university to that most sickening of merchandising—ads for semi-cultural luxuries.

8. Reduce directly other forms of waste—ostentation, needless moving about, and internal reduplication of effort—*not* by introducing a three-term or four-term system.

The university is not a plant in the manufacturing sense. And it is a second absurd paradox to spend money for advertising and public relations and skimp on the indispensable ingredient of learning, which is Time. If we asked students to work hard while they do work, using full weeks in the regular year, we would need no "acceleration." If we do spread out the work, we shall only loaf through 12 months instead of eight.

9. Increase the salaries of instructors and have fewer. Increase the salaries of administrators and have better ones.

Organize administration, so as to take in young B.A.'s, young professional graduates, leading scholars with a sense of public duty, and refugees from business or government—provided they are not running away from responsibility and hard work, but only from red tape and guff.

10. Keep instructing the trustees: only they can furnish the synoptic view.

There is no mystery about the general strategy of education and research, even when the details are unfamiliar or abstruse. Keep the trustees out of administration, even of the buildings and grounds departments, but let them require of the administration strict accountings from *all* departments. Put notable faculty men on boards of trustees, not of their own, but of neighboring institutions, for their wisdom and special information. •

The Children Like It

Team Teaching for the Elementary School

PHILIP LAMBERT

In Educational Leadership

Philip Lambert is Associate Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin, and Director, Washington Elementary School, Madison. Reported from Educational Leadership, *XVIII (November 1960), 85–88, 128.*

TEAM teaching is one current development in education which is evoking interest and excitement and some negative reactions.

Team teaching is not new, the basic principle being older than formal education itself. The family unit—parents, grandparents, aunts and uncles, older brothers and sisters—was in the teaching business long before the first school was built. Today, children continue to learn basic skills from family members most interested or qualified to teach them. Team instruction, too, is based on the idea that every teacher excels in some, but not all, of the abilities and techniques necessary for the education of a single child. Ideally, these special abilities should be used to the fullest extent providing each child with the best possible education his school can offer in every area.

Although many experiments with instructional teams have been made in junior-high schools and high schools, the team-teaching plan seems to have equal if not greater relevance to the needs and objectives of the elementary school.

The present elementary organization, however, attempts to give each teacher the same number of pupils, the same time schedule and curriculum, and the same responsibility, regardless of the teacher's special training, experience, or skill. In addition, many elementary-school teachers are overwhelmed with nonprofessional duties.

In its simplest form, team teaching occurs whenever more than one teacher has responsibility for the same group of children at a given time—for example, whenever a certified teacher is assisted by a student teacher.

In a more complex form, the instructional team is a group of teachers of different experience and abilities aided by various nonprofessionals. The team may have from three to six members and be responsible for 150 or more children. The class may be all of the same grade level or of varying grade levels.

Team teaching should not be confused with the departmentalized plan in which each teacher is responsible primarily for one subject area. Team members, though they are all specially competent in certain areas, have their primary responsibility toward all the children in the class. If one teacher presents a science demonstration to the large class, the other teachers assist the demonstration teacher during the presentation. When the class breaks down into small work groups, each teacher has heard and participated in the demonstration and can be an effective small group leader.

More than a dozen communities in the country have initiated team teaching in the elementary school. In most instances the experiments are in the developmental stage, and the staff members are not yet ready to make a complete evaluation. However, both the Franklin school in Lexington, Massachusetts, in cooperation with Harvard, and the Washington school in Madison, Wisconsin, in cooperation with the University of Wisconsin, are developing experimental designs to compare team teaching with present methods.

Preliminary results from the Franklin school have been inconclusive. However, the staff has reported that pupil achievement and adjustment remained the same,notwithstanding the unsettled conditions of experimentation. The Washington school has begun a five-year project designed to evaluate pupil achievement in the various subject areas, and determine what changes took place in children's perception of authority figures under team-teaching conditions.

Let us look now at some typical problems of elementary education and see how team teaching might help to solve these:

TYPICAL PROBLEMS

Just as class begins, Ricky is crying uncontrollably in the hall. He has had a fight in the play yard. What was the fight about? Who started it? What should be done? A few minutes attention from someone who knows Ricky and who can learn the answers would probably clear the situation. But Ricky's teacher cannot leave the rest of the class even for a few minutes. She will have to send him to the principal's office, even though this may disturb him more. With an instructional team, someone who is familiar with both the child and the immediate situation is always available to help.

Mrs. McKay has been ill, off and on, for several weeks. What effect will this have on the children in her class? Under the present system, each time she is absent a substitute will be sent in, and the chances are that each time it will be a different substitute who is unfamiliar with the children, the lesson plan, and perhaps unfamiliar with the school building and personnel. She will not know that David has trouble with division, or that Susy will quiet down if she does not sit by Jane. Probably she will be able to do little more than baby sit with the children until Mrs. McKay is well enough to continue their education. The team system does away with this problem. In an emergency, any one of the members can pitch in and the instructional program can continue unimpeded. If a substitute is assigned to the class, there is always someone to answer the questions that arise.

Sally cannot get along with her teacher, Miss Grey. Sally has never been a disciplinary problem before, but she is lively and boisterous, and Miss Grey, though an excellent teacher, is a quiet, reserved type of person. An experienced principal knows that all teachers cannot work effectively with all children. Should he move Sally to another room? Even if Sally is not upset by this change, the principal may have to spend time reassuring Miss Grey that she was not to blame.

If Miss Grey is part of an instructional team this situation need never arise. An ideal teaching team will be made up of teachers with varying personality types, and it should contain someone who will find Sally easy to teach. Others may have special ability when dealing with the slow child, the shy child, etc.

These are only a few examples. A good team-teaching program has other important advantages. It presents exceptional opportunities for the preservice education (and financial support) of undergraduate teachers and also for students who hold an A.B. degree but must take certain courses to earn a teaching certificate. For the qualified teacher, it provides an opportunity to move ahead in the profession without leaving the classroom where his ability and experience can be of most use. Team teaching also gives staff members a chance to work together on a common task, to share ideas and problems, and to learn new techniques.

Are there disadvantages in team teaching? The often expressed fears, that children would feel lonely or lost in such big groups, that they would miss having some one person to relate to (or cling to), have proved to be unfounded. Most of the children who have experienced team teaching have been enthusiastic. They seem to adjust quickly to the idea of having several teachers instead of one. They make more friends and join more activities. Most of all, they find school more interesting.

The real problems have centered on matters of organization, curriculum planning, budgeting, and school architecture. A great deal of skilled organizational work must be done while team teaching is in the experimental stage. Though an established program should cost no more than the present system, getting one started is expensive in terms of money and time. Many school systems will move slowly because of this necessary initial investment.

Nevertheless, it seems certain that team teaching is going to play a more and more important role in the future of American education. After all, how can it lose when the children are behind it? •

Possible Approaches to

Reappraising the Length of the School Year

In Year-Round School

JUNE, July, and August. These are the months when school plants in nearly 40,000 districts are closed and standing idle, when a million or more teachers are out of work or employed in temporary jobs, and when millions of children across the nation have time on their hands. This is tradition. It reflects the conception imbedded in the minds of the American people of what schools ought to do, how schools ought to be operated, and for how long.

The practice of a long school vacation has its origin in our earlier agrarian life when children were needed on the farms and around the homes during planting, growing, and harvesting seasons; when the demands for organized educational experiences were less insistent; when children had more opportunity than they now have to learn about work and to develop skills and competencies.

Today, we cling to this old school calendar at a time when the country is confronted with a serious shortage of teaching personnel, when school buildings are grossly overcrowded, and when there are insistent pressures on children and adults to learn more and to learn better. The practice of leaving schools stand idle should be carefully reexamined in the light of present circumstances and existing needs.

Reported from Year-Round School, *published by the American Association of School Administrators, (1960), 1–5, 21–22.*

If the signs of the times can be read with any degree of accuracy, they clearly indicate need in the years to come for more highly developed skills, more technical information, and a broader range of vision and understanding on the part of every citizen. It is toward these ends that much of the present-day discussion is directed.

Meeting the needs of an ever-increasing number of children and adding new measures of quality to the educational program beyond what is now provided in most communities will take more personnel, will call for more and better facilities, and *will cost more money.*

To the practical-minded citizen, the hardheaded businessman, or the parent who wants broader and better educational opportunities for his children, the year-round school makes a lot of sense for several reasons: The school plant already exists, fully equipped and ready for use. The overhead costs of administration continue approximately the same in many communities whether the schools are open or closed during the summer months. Fixed charges such as insurance, interest, and capital outlay costs remain fairly constant whether the schools are in operation or shut down. The teaching staff—the community's most important educational asset – is, in considerable measure, already mobilized. A large percentage of the children is left without constructive developmental programs during the summer months.

In recent years, the all-year school concept has been debated and discussed with growing intensity. This discussion, for the most part based on judgments held by interested parties rather than on information drawn from research, has increased controversy rather than promoted agreement on principles and approaches. The practicality of some of the proposals has seldom been tested by other than empirical means. These proposals have taken different forms and have been advanced for a variety of reasons. In general, they have been based on the assumption that education does not end in June and begin again in September and that schools, like business and industry, should be organized on a year-round basis.

Over the years, a number of approaches to a year-round program have claimed considerable attention. Although there are numerous variations and combinations, four basic types stand out:

1. *Staggered quarter for all.* A 48-week, four-quarter, staggered-vacation school year which allows students to attend three of the four quarters. In a staggered plan of enrolment, three-fourths of the children theoretically are in school while one-fourth are on a three-month imposed vacation. Teachers may be employed for three or for all four quarters, depending on individual contract arrangements. This plan virtually eliminates the three-month summer vacation.

2. *Full 48-week school for all.* A full 48-week school year in which students attend four quarters of approximately 12 weeks each. About four weeks will be left for vacation with this plan. The vacation will likely be distributed throughout the year such as the Christmas and Easter holidays and other periods that may be assigned to the school calendar. This program gives students an opportunity to complete four years of work in three years, or to take additional courses. Teachers work 48 weeks with approximately 30 days for vacation.

3. *Voluntary summer program.* A regular 36-week to 40-week program with a summer program varying in length from four weeks to 12 weeks. The regular program runs in the conventional manner with a conventional curriculum. Opportunities are provided for remedial and make-up work in the summer-school program, but major emphasis is placed on course offerings above and beyond what is offered during the regular term. Teachers serve as a matter of

choice or with assignments staggered.

4. *Summer program for professional personnel.* A regular 36- to 40-week program for students, with the faculties serving an additional 10-12 weeks on assignments devoted to improving the program of services to students during the coming year. Faculty members would be assigned to summer workshops, special work in universities, curriculum studies, preparation of special materials for instruction, etc.

SUGGESTED APPROACHES

If the leadership of a community decides to reappraise the length of its school year, a number of possible approaches are suggested:

First, the leaders should consider thoroughly *who* should be involved in the decision-making process and *when* they should be involved. Clearly, the leaders themselves—the superintendent, the principals, representative teachers, school-board members, together with heads of civic, labor, and business groups—must go through a study and discussion experience. They need not all work simultaneously, however. Probably the profession, with the guidance of the superintendent, should be first to examine such questions as:

Is there a need for change in the length of the school year to make the school more efficient, for economical reasons, or to extend pupil services to the end that better learning will result?

Have the educational demands of the time so increased and the curriculum expanded so much that pupils must have more time in school to meet the requirements?

Does the long period of preparation for those who assume complex occupational roles suggest need for acceleration?

Any such review will likely involve serious study of the contemporary social, economic, political, and cultural developments, together with a look at the changing international scene and its implications for education. If such reviews indicate the need for a longer school year, attention should next center on the various plans for operating a year-round program. Faculty meetings devoted to discussions of the various plans, along with reports from various plans, along with reports from various publications should be helpful. Similar activities and programs could later be undertaken with parent-teacher, civic, and business groups.

Once the leaders from the teaching profession and from other agencies and organizations reach a consensus on what ought or ought not to be done, then wide publicity and discussion should permeate all strata of the community. Out of this should come general agreement on an appropriate program, together with a plan for securing the additional revenues needed. Only after all this is done is it wise for a board of education to adopt a policy. •

Issues and Trends in Public School Finance

ARTHUR F. COREY

In New Directions in Financing Public Schools

Arthur F. Corey is Executive Secretary, California Teachers Association, Burlingame. Reported from New Directions in Financing Public Schools, *prepared by the Committee on Educational Finance, National Education Association (1960), 10–17.*

ASSUMING some agreement on the general character and purpose of public education, there are but three general issues in public school finance.

The general issues might be stated, in their simplest terms, in the form of three brief questions:

1. What are the defensible limits of public education?
2. How much should the public schools cost?
3. Who shall pay for public education and how?

In order to discuss these issues with any degree of effectiveness, one must make certain assumptions. There are those who will say that these concepts are idealistic and unworkable, but I say such people have never shared the American dream of a society of free and equal men. These postulates must find their verification, not in reason alone, but also in faith.

LIMITS OF EDUCATION

In answering the question posed in the first general issue, the present defensible limits of public education are as follows: Every American child should receive nine years of elementary education, including a year of kindergarten. Virtually every child should receive four years of high-school education, and junior or community colleges should offer two additional years of education to all who desire it. The school year should be at least 180 days for all and should be supplemented by an additional summer session of at least 25 days for those who wish to attend. Any American, at any age, should find academic, vocational, and recreational opportunities through free adult education in the public schools.

Every classroom should be staffed with a competent, well-trained teacher. Adequate counseling as well as medical and psychiatric services should be provided at all levels. School buildings should be functional, safe, healthful, and beautiful.

Special programs should be provided for the retarded, the gifted, the deaf, the blind, and the seriously handicapped. These programs must have specially prepared teachers and the appropriate special equipment without which the unique needs of these groups cannot be met.

There may be persons who are not ready to support all aspects of this total program, but there is ample evidence that the American people will not be satisfied with less. There are a few communities in our country where all of these elements may be found, and the trend is in this direction everywhere. This is the kind of program we must be prepared to finance in the future.

THE COST

In considering the second general issue—How much should the public schools cost? – the two most important factors are pupil enrolment and teachers' salaries. Both can be predicted with some degree of accuracy. In the next 10 years high-school enrolment will increase about 50 percent, and elementary-school enrolment will increase about 16 percent. This added enrolment will require at least four-tenths of a million new teachers and other professional staff members.

In the past, rapid teacher turnover and relatively large numbers of new teachers at the lower levels of salary schedules have tended to hold down average salaries. With the improvement of retirement systems and the professionalization of teaching, there will be more career teachers at the higher salary levels, increasing average salaries.

There seems to be substantial agreement that salary levels for teachers are not competitive with salaries for other groups requiring comparable preparation and, therefore, must be raised faster than general wage levels if the stiff competition for trained manpower is to be successfully met.

The increases in the average salaries of teachers could be at least partially offset by increasing class size. However, there seems to be emerging a professional consensus that, even though in some subjects and in some areas class size could be safely increased, the savings thus effected would be more than erased by correcting the admittedly serious problem of oversize classes in other areas. In California, in terms of teachers' salaries alone, the expense of decreasing elementary-school class-size from 33 to 32 would be $15 million annually.

The possibility of decreasing the expenditure for teachers' salaries through use of mechanical and electronic devices is now being suggested. The heavy initial cost of such equipment would tend to offset any savings during the early years of its use. Even if the adoption of such devices proceeded rapidly, the savings during the next 10 years would not be dramatic.

Every suggestion for increasing efficiency in the expenditure of the school dollar must be carefully considered, and, undoubtedly, some savings can be effected. However, there is every indication that for the next 10 years the over-all trend in school costs will continue sharply upward.

Several individuals and groups have released estimates on how much school costs will rise in the next decade. The White House Conference on Education was one of the first. In 1955 the Conference estimated that dollars spent on education should double in the decade following. The Conference group underestimated by several billions. Between 1954-55 and 1958-59, total costs have already increased from $9.7 billion to $14.4 billion, an increase in the first four years of almost 50 percent.

Other groups estimating the future costs of public-school education have been the Rockefeller Brothers Fund, the President's Science Advisory Committee, and the Educational Policies Commission. All estimates have expressed emphatically that a doubling of costs by 1970 would be a minimal rather than an extravagant goal.

What does all this mean in terms of the actual monetary cost of public education in 1969-70? It means the cost will be in excess of $31 billion by a significant amount—unless the schools reject the public's demand for expanded services and operate an inadequate program that will not meet America's needs. A figure of $35 billion would seem to be a reasonable estimate of the annual operating cost of public education by the end of this decade. Assuming continuation of long-term financing, needed revenue for debt servicing and costs of new construction will add between $2.5 and $3 billion to that figure for a total 1970 cost of $38 billion.

WHO WILL PAY?

Who will furnish this staggering amount of money and how? First, the figure must be brought into more accurate perspective by considering it in relation to the national economy. The gross national product has been expanding at a rate of about 6 percent per year. Teachers' salaries and enrolment each have been increasing at a rate of about 5 percent per year. This means that even though the increase in per-pupil expense is slightly lower than the growth in the gross national product, the increasing enrolment must, to a great extent, be financed by capturing a higher percentage of the gross national product to support public education.

In recent years, this has been done through an annual increase in state support of about 13 percent and an increase in local support of 10 percent. Both percentages are considerably higher than the growth in the total economy. It is not realistic to expect that this disparity can continue through the next decade. The fact must be faced that the outside estimate of new support to be captured in the next decade from the expansion in the economy would be $8 billion. Adding this figure to present state and local support, we get a possible figure of $23 billion. If the cost 10 years hence is $38 billion, we have a deficit of about $15 billion.

It should be obvious that this situation establishes a problem which cannot be met unless we are willing to reexamine all our cherished concepts in school finance. The future financial needs cannot be met if leadership persists in continuing a "business as usual" attitude.

This is a national problem and will not be solved by states and communities acting independently. Substantial federal assistance is imperative and inevitable. Such support will be easier to get if a carefully worked out plan is available to use such funds—to achieve a distribution which will guarantee a satisfactory educational program for all the nation's children. The advent of massive federal support will be a critical time in the history of school finance. Without national leadership, mistakes could be made which would be almost impossible to correct. The present would be a most propitious time for initiation of a national study by our best leadership to examine the problems involved in integrating large-scale federal support into state systems of school finance.

The concept of local control may need reinterpretation. Local control was instituted in America for very definite reasons, and it may now be operating in areas far removed from any legitimate relationship to its original purpose.

The conviction that a large proportion of the local school budget must be financed through taxes which are locally determined and locally levied may be no longer workable. It may be that the basic contribution of the property tax to the state foundation program should be levied state-wide, leaving the locally determined tax to be used for supplementation only. This approach would be practical only if the foundation program were adequate to finance an acceptable minimum level of educational opportunity.

The usually accepted theory that the wealth of a community is the single index of the outside subsidy to be received is beginning to break down, particularly in big cities. The total property tax burden must soon be considered as well as the index of wealth. School taxes cannot be considered in isolation but must be planned as a part of a total tax system. Every possible improvement in the property tax system must be made if its proceeds are to keep pace with the expanding economy. It certainly cannot be expected to do more.

The pattern of the task ahead for the public schools is now quite clear. Not only do our people expect this task to be accomplished but they are insisting that it be done with ever-increasing quality. The cost in the next decade will be, in terms of traditional standards, almost prohibitive. However, the expected expansion in the total economy can support the program without strain if the load is equitably levied. •

Five Unwise Pressures

Do We Push Children?

ALICE V. KELIHER

In Childhood Education

Do we push our children? My answer is yes if we agree on the meaning of the word "push" and if we agree that anything we say about schools in the United States cannot be true of *all* schools.

As for the word "push"—let's be sure not to confuse it with "challenging" or "mind-stretching" or genuinely motivating learning for which children are ready. There is often too little of the latter approach to learning. The world is of great interest and challenge for children. When we free children for discovery and exploration, we do not need to push from behind.

Listed below are only five of the unwise pressures currently being applied to our children. Generally, not all of the pressures are found in any one school. There are still those holding the line for the right of children to a period of childhood.

1. *Pressure to begin earlier.* A respectable national magazine recently carried an article entitled, "Why Waste Our Five-Year-Olds?" Two themes were that five-year-olds should be given an academic program and that they should be toughened up by less mothering for the tough age in which they will live. The implications of the title, "Why Waste Our Five-Year-Olds" in itself raises many questions.

We know that a few children are ready to read at five; we also know that the great majority are not ready. Research has consistently shown that a mental age of six and one-half or over is necessary for reading with understanding. We are told to expect a four-year range of ability when children enter the first grade. Oculists warn us that most children's eyes are not mature enough even at six for close application to print and figures. Yet pressure comes from parents and school people to start children earlier.

A few years ago New York City public-school officials lowered the entrance age for first grade to five years and four months. Later it was changed, but in July 1960 it was announced that 25,644 pupils

Alice V. Keliher is Distinguished Service Professor at Jersey City State College, New Jersey. Reported from Childhood Education, *XXXVII (November 1960), 108–12.*

were not promoted. Could the too-early start of many be partly accountable? The child who starts too young stays too young until that ugly day when a nonpromotion policy catches up with him with its consequent threat to mental health.

2. *Pressure to pare curriculum back to three R's.* There is sad confusion in the minds of those who apply this particular pressure to the schools. For example, a committee in San Francisco recommended that the elementary schools spend two-thirds of each day on reading, writing, and arithmetic and, at the same time, urged the schools to reduce building Indian villages and visits to the post office and fire station. What is there to read about, write about, figure about, if the rich content of experience is eliminated?

Evidence abounds that the richer the environment, the better the learning of the three R's. They are so basic to literacy and competency that we want them learned in the best and most lasting way possible. Sadly enough, we have many people who can read but don't because they have been taught either to dread it or to think of it as sterile and barren.

We'd better watch some of the people who are demanding a cutback to the three R's at the expense of physical education, music, and art. Maybe these are the budget cutters who don't care about the cost to children so deprived of their heritage.

3. *Pressure to return to X-Y-Z grouping.* Here, too, there is marked ignorance of the facts produced by research. It was established 30 years ago, after testing thousands of children, that you simply cannot get a group that is homogeneous in more than one ability. Children have important differences within themselves as well as among themselves. Get them grouped for one thing and it doesn't hold for the next.

We have a moral obligation to acquaint ourselves with the new findings about IQ and creativity. There is some indication that they are not synonymous. There is suspicion that the IQ is a measure of mental abilities and that creativity often calls for a broader and less conforming range of intellectual pursuits. It seems possible that children who are able in the nonconforming areas find themselves placed in the slower-moving groups and so their potential is not realized. Our society cannot afford to lose one iota of creative ability today.

4. *Pressure to return to "real" marks.* One of the most evil pressures is the practice of governing marks by the group in which the child functions. What does a mark of 75.6 in history mean? Does it mean 75.6 percent of what was in the teacher's mind? In the text? In the examination?

We do parents a grave injustice if we let them think that this kind of marking tells them something deep and meaningful about their child. A mark really obscures what we generally need to communicate in our partnership with parents.

What it does to the children is the deeper issue. Now some communities are tying marks to homogeneous grouping. A child cannot get a top mark if he is not in the top group. Then there are those who are giving lower marks than formerly for the same amount of work in order to "motivate" more effort. One principal announced that, for the same quality of work performed a year ago, marks would be lower this year. What kind of motivation is this?

We have come a long way in developing sound and wholesome ways of conferring with parents. Schools with strong leaders who know the needs of children are not yielding to this unknowing pressure for marks that have little or no meaning. Here again, let us be alert to assess what is called "parent pressure." If there are one or two malcontents, then be fair to the majority of parents who want the best for their children. Parents will want the best if they are informed on what it is.

5. *Pressure for subject-centered departmentalization.* In some school systems, children as young as eight are moving from room to room, subject to subject, teacher to teacher, six teachers a day. The high school has moved down. And a poor high school at that.

The proponents say, "Teachers cannot teach math and science to eight- to eleven-year-old-children. Teachers feel more prestige, hold their heads higher if they are teaching subjects." This must mean they are *not* teaching children. The proponents also say, "Children can progress at their own rate in each subject and in this way learn more."

Well, if I were an elementary teacher again, I would insist that I could teach whatever I expected eight- to eleven-year-olds to learn—knowing how easily and readily they pitch in to help teach each other. Furthermore, what kind of moral professional posture is it to claim that teaching math invites more prestige than teaching children?

As for learning more from a subject-by-subject, teacher-by-teacher program, this brings us back to the question, "How do children learn?" And the answer is: They learn best through rich experience woven into a tapestry whose design emerges as the many and varied threads of activity are tied together. •

TWO second-grade boys were sitting on the school steps at recess, absorbed in a serious debate. As their teacher passed by, she overheard one of the boys say, "The principal does *not* have an electric paddle!"—From *NEA Journal*

Too Hot to Handle?

Recommendation 21

Jean and **C. Burleigh Wellington**
In The Clearing House

In his Recommendation 21 for the American high school, James B. Conant has provided a powder keg strong enough to blow the schools wide at the seams. He suggests a required twelfth-grade course for everyone, under the broad topic of American problems. He writes, "Current topics should be included; free discussion of controversial issues should be encouraged."

This innocent-sounding statement has implications which could well set a whole school or even a whole town into chaos.

Real free discussion, Dr. Conant? Let us consider some of the topics and the results of free discussion. Religion, for example. Can the school allow free discussion about the merits of Christian Science, the ritual of the Catholic church, the lack of religious emphasis in our society? Or segregation in the South, for another example. Shall we discuss the moral implications? Or even something which seems cooler and less explosive: Shall we discuss governments and present the favorable aspects of communism?

Does Dr. Conant really mean free discussion? If so, such topics will surely be discussed because we know they are of concern and interest to young people, and they certainly fall within Dr. Conant's recommendation for current topics and controversial issues in American society. For this very reason we have kept them out of the schools. They are too hot to handle.

Jean and C. Burleigh Wellington are staff members of the Department of Education, Tufts University, Medford, Mass. Reported from The Clearing House, *XXXV (November 1960), 153–55.*

Perhaps what Dr. Conant means is that teachers should allow "free discussion" which is not *really* free because the teacher will insist that the students draw conclusions which are "moral" or "democratic" or "good." These adjectives will necessarily be defined in the teacher's terms, since no two people agree on their exact definition.

When young Sandy decides she wishes to investigate communism, the teacher will be careful to show Sandy that communism is "bad" and neither "moral nor democratic," and, therefore, Sandy must stay away from it. Or, if the group discusses population control, the teacher, thinking of several religious groups represented in the room, tells the group that such control is often considered "bad" and they had better forget it.

We cannot believe this is what Dr. Conant has in mind because, however you define it, it is not free discussion. Free discussion must mean that students discuss whatever American problems they care about, and that they discuss them freely and arrive at whatever judgments they care to make.

Do we dare allow this? We can envision teachers, almost all of whom have no training in group dynamics, leading such groups. Either they will be frightened to death of the implications and squelch any original thought so as to keep the discussion under control (and where is free discussion here?) or they will lose control and the students will sweep away the free discussion and turn it into a bull session or even a brawl.

Even if we train the teachers in group dynamics so that they can adequately help students through free discussion, do we dare? What about all the hot topics and even hotter judgments of students? Any judgment a student makes, even though it is carefully reasoned because of good group dynamics, is a potential bomb if it blatantly disagrees with Mother and Father or the idealized picture of what good boys and girls ought to believe.

Frankly, we vote 100 percent for free discussion of the most controversial American problems youngsters show concern about. But we vote this way only after careful consideration of the implications as outlined here. Therefore, we suggest several conditions for this proposal which should lead to its helping students instead of creating havoc.

1. There must be trained group leaders for the discussion. Only someone who understands group dynamics and is experienced with groups can lead controversial discussion toward carefully reasoned conclusions.

2. Parents should know of the implications. They must be told in advance that controversial topics will be discussed freely and students aided to make reasoned decisions about them, but that there will be no direct attempt to tell them what they ought to believe.

3. The people who undertake this kind of discussion for their schools should decide if they have enough faith in young people and in the democratic process that they dare allow it to be practiced so that young people make their *own* decisions. If the policy makers do not feel this way, they better reject Recommendation 21.

Again, we say we vote completely in favor. We are convinced, after some experience with controversial topics in group dynamics, that here is one of the best ways to elicit careful, critical thinking. Furthermore, our experience with such groups has led us to increasing faith that, given freedom within limits of the democratic process, young people will almost always arrive at "moral" and "good" decisions, which, because of the process, are meaningful and workable for them. •

The Median Is 30 Pupils

Class Size in Elementary Schools

In NEA Research Bulletin

ALMOST everywhere the educational leadership of the nation is in agreement that excessive size of elementary-school classes is one of the most serious threats to progress. One after another, the leading superintendents urge their boards of education to declare as a major goal the reduction of oversize classes. Teachers and teacher groups are on record in declaring excessive class size as one of the chief roadblocks to effective work with the small children assigned to them.

What is the maximum acceptable size of a selfcontained elementary-school class? When does it become "overcrowded"? What upper limits lead to the scheduling of half-day sessions for some elementary-school children?

The answers to these questions must be found in each local school district. Among high schools, the regional accrediting associations have exerted a meaningful influence on class size. In institutions of higher education, the weight of staff opinion is evident. But each local school system exercises wide latitude in determining the pupil load to be assigned to each elementary-school teacher.

In the open areas of the nation, it is not uncommon to find small classes in operation. Sometimes extremely small classes are maintained at a high per-pupil cost, but this is usually done for purely local reasons rather than generally accepted educational policies. In 1958-59, the average class in approximately 20,000 one-teacher schools consisted of 17 pupils.

Since these conditions are dictated by local circumstances rather than by the determination of defensible educational standards, the NEA Research Division's biennial study of elementary-school class size was limited to the *urban* school districts of the nation. To include the thousands of small classes operating in *rural* areas would tend to distort the nationwide picture.

Here are some of the major findings in urban schools in the 1959-60 school year.

√ In general, excessive overcrowding of elementary-school classes is most severe in the larges cities and in the Southeast.

√ The median urban elementary-school class contains 30 pupils,

Reported from NEA Research Bulletin, *XXXVIII (October 1960,* 86–91.

with a range from 15 or fewer to 56 or more.

√ Of about 91,000 classes in the 26 largest cities (500,000 and over), 87 percent contain more than 25 pupils each; 64 percent more than 30; 27 percent more than 35; and in 5 percent of these classes each teacher is responsible for more than 40 pupils.

√ In all urban elementary schools combined, 71,000 pupils are in classes of more than 45 each; 380,000 are in classes of more than 40 each; and over 2 million pupils are in classes of 36 or more.

√ About 1/3 million elementary-school pupils are restricted to half-day sessions.

√ The overcrowding of classrooms and the assignment of elementary-school children to half-day sessions continue to reflect the inability of many districts to provide enough classrooms and teachers.

While the median-class-size findings summarize the general situation, they do not give an accurate picture of any specific class-size situation. Detailed tabulation reveals that out of 445,600 classes only 23,000 (5 percent) had exactly 25 pupils—the figure that many times has been judged the optimum for the elementary school child. A total of 75,000 classes (or approximately 18 percent) had classes of 24 pupils or less. The report shows 154,000 classes are at the 26-30 pupil level.

Thus, here is the beginning of the problem for fully one-half of the children. There are some 136,000 classes containing 31-35 pupils; 16,000 classes with 36; 12,000 with 37; and in more than 9,000 classes each teacher is responsible for 38 children.

The upper limits extend until we find more than 10,000 classes with 39-40 pupils; almost 7,500 classes of 41-45; and nearly 1,500 elementary-school classes are loaded with more than 45 children each. These figures emphasize the limited meaning of average or median class size.

INFLUENCING FACTORS

What factors influence class size? One answer is: *The size of the district*. Each of the four nationwide biennial studies by the Research Division has brought out the fact that a child's chances of having a fair share of his teacher's time and attention depend, in large measure, on the size of the district he lives in. It is clear that the greater the population of the district, the smaller are his chances.

In the 26 largest districts (500,000 or more in population), 87 percent of the classes—with 91 percent of the children—are larger than 25 each. In the second largest, population-size districts (100,000 to 499,000), 85 percent of the classes—with 89 percent of the children—exceed the 25-pupil size. In the smallest school districts (2,500-4,999 population) 65 percent of the classes had more than 25 pupils.

At the next, equally significant

level of comparison—classes with more than 30 pupils each—the difference according to population stands out more clearly. In the 26 largest districts, 64 percent of the classes, with 71 percent of the pupils, are larger than 30 each. In the smallest districts (population 2,500-4,999), only 30 percent of the classes, with 37 percent of the children, are in classes larger than 30 each.

The size-of-the-district variation stands out most clearly when classes of more than 35 are considered. Here, the number drops from 27 percent for the largest districts to 7 percent of the classes for the smallest districts.

In all urban districts combined, these classes of 36 pupils or more number more than 56,000 and contain more than 2,161,000 children. And no fewer than 8,750 classes containing 380,000 pupils are in classes of 40 or more. For these children the "national average" has little meaning, indeed.

A second answer to the question, What factors influence class size? is the *geographic region*. Among the 26 largest districts, the classes of more than 25 pupils each include almost 97 percent of the children in the Middle region, from 94 to 96 percent in the Northwest, Southeast, Southwest, and Far West, but this figure drops to 84 percent in the Middle Atlantic.

Wide variation among the regions is found when classes of more than 35 each are considered. In the 26 largest districts, 47 percent of the children in the Middle region are in classes of 36 to 40 pupils. In the other population groups, the Southeast condones classes of this size most frequently. Also, classes containing more than 40 children each are to be found most frequently in the Southeast in five of the six population groups.

The device most frequently used to reduce oversize classes is to divide them into half-day sessions. And here again, it is the child in the heavily populated districts who suffers. One-half of the 26 largest districts resorted to this practice in the 1959-60 school year with 119,000 children affected. Again the figures decline with the smaller districts until in the smallest size district groups only 2 percent cut the meeting time of any classes in half. Over-all, almost 1/3 million elementary-school children were restricted to such limited instructional programs during the 1959-60 school year.

The chronic nature of the problem of overcrowding is due, in no small measure, to the difficulty of determining its long-term effects. Teachers, parents, and administrators agree on the bad effects on the educational progress of the individual child. But the task of measuring and demonstrating these long-term effects has not yet been achieved. And so, under the pressure of inadequate funds, millions of American children continue their schooling under this handicap.

•

Speech Is a Social Force

J. JEFFERY AUER

In NEA Journal

J. Jeffery Auer is Executive Vice-President of the Speech Association of America, NEA, and Chairman, Department of Speech and Theatre, Indiana University, Bloomington. Reported from NEA Journal, *XLIX (November 1960), 21–23.*

NONE of the things which are done with intelligence are done without the aid of speech." Isocrates made this observation about 400 B.C., but it applies with even more force to the democratic society today.

Indeed, democracy has often been described as government by talk—from the public platform, in committees and conferences, in legislatures and business meetings, and in everyday conversations. Speech, in the sense described here, becomes a powerful social force, by means of which man interprets, controls, modifies, or adapts to his environment.

One way of assessing the role of speech today is to review three of its major functions: transmitting information, motivating action, and strengthening human relations.

Transmitting information is a basic function of speech in much of our everyday life, and especially in the areas of scholarship and science and in business.

A recent study published by the Institute of Higher Education underscored this evaluation of speech. In a survey made in 182 professional schools, a majority of 3,400 teachers and administrators designated speech training as important enough to be required of *every* student.

Motivating action is a function of speech-making with which we are especially familiar in a presidential election year. Speaking to bring about any social change, whether in a national election, a student government meeting, or the PTA, is essentially an enterprise in problem-solving. Purposeful talk will precede ultimate action in a democratic sequence that is as old as Pericles: "We decide or debate carefully, in person, all matters of policy, holding that acts are foredoomed to failure when undertaken undiscussed."

Strengthening human relations is a function of speech that has become more commonly understood in recent years. Unhappy experiences with walkouts at international conferences and industrial bargaining sessions have dramatized the fact that unless we preserve contact through communication and maintain elemental human relations, we are divided from our fellow men intellectually as well as emotionally. In every area of family, business, or community association, the critical point in human relationships is that point at which we talk with one another.

These concepts of the role of speech in modern society should make it apparent that to be inarticulate is to be ineffective, whether as a scholar, business or professional man, or as citizen.

The key to developing communications skills in our students is to place greater emphasis on direct instruction in speech, beginning in the first grade and continuing through the senior-high school.

For many persons, the suggestion of speech instruction evokes memories of a course built around "the rise and fall of the gesture," or elocutionary drills on "How now, brown cow?"

CARDINAL BELIEFS

To explode this fallacy requires only an examination of five of the cardinal beliefs held by today's teacher of speech.

1. Instruction in speech is concerned primarily with the source and substance of ideas.

Unlike the elocution teacher of yesterday or the untutored huckster who promises a bag of platform tricks in ten easy lessons, the modern teacher trains his students in gathering and interpreting evidence, analyzing ideas through critical thinking and listening, understanding group processes and audience psychology, and developing fully their capacities for effective presentation. This is solid academic instruction in the best tradition of the liberal arts.

2. Oral communication is a creative process, whether it takes the form of speech making, discussion and debate, oral reading and acting, or playwriting and directing.

Speech is creative in the sense that it brings into being a new idea or sometimes recreative in presenting an old idea in a new form, through a combination of intellect, imagination, feeling, and style. Together these qualities make of speech not a mere knack or skill, but an art.

Learning the facts about state and local government, for example, requires certain skills, but making a speech of advocacy for a specific city ordinance is a creative effort. Similarily, certain skills are required for studying history or literature, but real creativity is necessary for the student who acts a role in an historical drama.

3. Speech training should provide a continuity of instruction and development, from the primary school through the secondary.

Sometimes training in speech is neglected at the elementary level. When Johnny enters the first grade, we know that he can't add or subtract, name the state capitals, or form his letters, so we give specific instruction in numbers, geography, and penmanship.

But we do know that first-grade Johnny can talk—indeed, he may often talk too much, and out of turn—and so we ignore specific instruction in speech. Much of Johnny's talk, however, is superficial and immature, disorganized and awkwardly phrased. If he continues this way, uninstructed, we will discover that practice does not make perfect, but only permanent.

Little Johnny needs more than mere correction of grammatical errors, more than required repetitions of memorized pieces. He needs assigned oral reports and informal speeches, starting with planned and supervised "show and tell" periods in the primary grades, moving next to experiences in creative dramatics and oral readings, and then to more formal talks, book reports, and organized discussions of current events in the advanced grades.

At the junior-high and senior-high levels, with departmentalization of subject matter, adequate training for communication by speech requires direct instruction in independent courses.

Some curriculum planners may assume that students acquire proficiency in speech just by talking in a history class, on the playground, or at home. But improvement in the art of speech requires mastery of basic principles, practice in planned and directed experiences, and evaluation and criticism that emphasizes specific deficiencies.

The content of the basic high-school course should certainly include expository speaking, oral reading, discussion and debate, and persuasive speaking. Many schools will offer advanced courses in more specialized areas of speech.

For students having physiological or psychological speech handicaps, specialized speech therapy programs should be available throughout the school system.

4. While the formal speech course provides a focal point for training in oral communication, the teacher of speech should enlist the cooperation of other teachers in maintaining universally high standards in the school.

As the English teacher's work is undermined when the science teacher accepts an ungrammatical term paper, so is the speech teacher's when the teacher of history accepts a shoddy oral report. Literate and articulate presentation of subject matter is an essential element of every subject.

5. Speech instruction should be provided by those teachers who have had appropriate training in speech.

Too often, especially in small high schools, teaching speech courses and directing cocurricular activities is assigned to those who are unprepared, uninterested, and uninspired. To protect their own integrity, teachers in every field should be concerned with the professional standards, including proper certification, in every other field.

Speech training in the elementary-school and secondary-school curriculum, if built on this philosophy, will prepare students for intelligent and effective participation in today's democratic society. •

What Goal Is Sought?

Looking Ahead in Reading

WILLIAM S. GRAY

In Education Looks Ahead

WHAT lies ahead in reading? Would that I had the insight or the gift of prophecy to anticipate the wave of the future and to identify reading developments accurately. Certain clues and some evidence are available, however, that justify a few predictions.

Of primary importance is the fact that children are growing up in a world that differs radically from the past. The difference lies partly in the tremendous expansion in knowledge and the marvelous technological developments which are changing the ways of man everywhere. It lies also in the increased necessity of vigorous effort if, as a nation, we are to maintain our status and leadership, and it lies in the urgent need of preserving and improving the way of life which, as a people, we cherish.

As a result, children face strong societal pressures to learn more broadly, more thoroughly, and for longer periods of time. In response to the new and challenging needs, education is taking on a new seriousness of purpose. And as a first step in meeting these new challenges, school curriculums are now being radically revised and expanded.

The goal is increased capacity on the part of children to engage independently at a reflective, creative level in the pursuit of knowledge and in the solution of difficult problems. Of special importance are certain qualities of mind which are being emphasized repeatedly. They are: an inquiring attitude; a willingness to probe deeply as one reads; and the capacity to deal imaginatively and creatively with the ideas acquired through reading. This new emphasis calls for maximum use of the higher processes in reading and suggests new frontiers to conquer in future efforts to improve reading.

At this point, a question arises: What changes, if any, in current reading programs are essential if the increasingly broad goals sought through reading are to be achieved?

As far as can be foreseen at

At the time of his death last fall, William S. Gray was Professor of Education Emeritus, and Director, Research in Reading, University of Chicago. Reported from Education Looks Ahead, *published by Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, (1960), 53–63.*

present, the changes needed are not so much in the general scope and design of the reading programs as in upgrading the programs in harmony with expanding needs. A challenge of the first magnitude is presented by the need to pursue our objectives more efficiently both in basic reading and in the content fields, and to continue our efforts longer.

Considering possible changes in basic instruction in reading, several significant developments may be predicted. Of primary importance is far wider provision for developmental training in reading throughout the upper grades, high school, and junior college. A trend in this direction is found in recent state-wide decisions to extend reading instruction and in the increasingly widespread use of developmental reading programs in high schools and colleges. There is mounting evidence that growth in reading is a lifelong process and that such growth is greatly facilitated through carefully planned guidance.

It is equally clear that efforts to promote greater mastery of basic reading attitudes and skills at all levels will be intensified. The goal sought is maximum achievement on the part of each child in harmony with his capabilities.

Current efforts to adjust instruction to individual differences will also be greatly extended. Thus far major attention has been given to the needs of slow learners. In the future, equal provision will be made for those who are above average. Progress in reading will be paced far less in terms of age and grade norms and far more in terms of individual capabilities, motivation, and needs.

In efforts to provide maximum progress both in and through reading, early training will be given in the other language arts—listening, speaking, and writing—and will be continued with increasing intensity at all school levels. The various language arts are closely related, as has been recognized for decades. Leading specialists in each of the language arts are now cooperating wholeheartedly in the development of materials and teaching procedures for use in elementary schools.

MORE VISUAL AIDS

We can expect increasing and effective use of audio-visual aids, such as filmstrips, films, recordings, and other devices, in teaching reading. The use of so-called teaching machines is now being vigorously advocated. Advantages claimed for these devices are: They tend to eliminate repetition of erroneous learnings. Each successive exercise is so modified that the child is soon able to do things far above his initial level. And the training provided is selfadministered. One of the limitations of teaching machines is that they do not provide training in the higher levels of reading—the construing of meaning, critical evaluation, the imaginative and creative use of the ideas read.

We cannot anticipate at present

how radically man's ingenuity and technology may modify traditional practices in teaching the basic skills of reading. If the experimental use of new procedures shows that the teacher's time can be saved and more rapid and efficient learning achieved, we should adopt them whole-heartedly. More energy will thus be released for promoting growth in the higher and more mature forms of interpretation.

BASIC READING PERIOD

For several reasons, the future basic reading period and the selections used may well assume even greater importance than in the past. First, during an era of special pressure for subject-matter learning, safeguards are needed against neglecting the personal development of pupils. Careful selection and use of reading materials may give pupils additional help in gaining an understanding of themselves and others, and in acquiring increased capacity to identify the nature of their own problems and to solve them rationally.

Second, a surprisingly large number of children are culturally deprived to a serious extent. It follows that a highly important function of the reading period in the future will be to help overcome this deficiency and to expand the cultural background of all the children.

Third, the number of juvenile delinquents is rapidly increasing. This is due largely, it is maintained, to attitudes, values, and behavior patterns acquired from unfavorable home and neighborhood environments. The need for the cultivation of wholesome social attitudes, moral sensitivity, and standards of conduct that will guide both thinking and behavior is important. Promoting growth in these directions through reading provides unlimited opportunity for research and experimentation in the future.

I wish to refer again to the urgent need for improving reading in the content fields. Herein lies one great possibility for developing mature, competent readers in the future. Progress in the past has been blocked by the hesitancy on the part of many subject-matter teachers to assume responsibility for reading improvement. Also blocking progress has been a lack of understanding among many teachers of the nature of reading problems and the types of guidance needed. The solution lies, in part, in more adequate preparation of teachers at the preservice level and specialized training of the type undertaken recently in such fields as mathematics for those teachers in service.

The goal sought is a closely coordinated, sequential program of reading improvement in all curriculum fields and for all levels of schooling. The ultimate success depends on the continuous blending of old blood and new—on holding fast to that which has proved its worth, while marking out new trails and conquering new frontiers.

•

Two Types of Contributions

Curriculum Benefits from Industrial Arts

RUPERT N. EVANS

In Illinois School Board Journal

INDUSTRIAL arts, as with every other subject in the curriculum, makes two distinct types of contributions to the accomplishments of the school. They are *direct* and *indirect* contributions.

The direct contribution of a subject comes through the increased knowledge, more highly developed skills, and changed attitudes which relate directly to that particular subject. For example, we expect that successful completion of a course in electricity will result in an increased knowledge of the functions of electrical circuits, a more highly developed skill in constructing and repairing electrical equipment, and a changed attitude toward symbols (together with other knowledge, skills, and attitudes).

The indirect contribution of a subject comes as it makes the learning of other subjects easier and more interesting. English makes other subjects easier to learn because of the indirect contribution of reading and writing skills. Physics makes music more interesting because it helps to explain relationships between different musical sounds.

If there is no "subject matter" in the subject it can make no direct contribution. If the student feels that the subject stops as soon as the period ends, there will be no indirect contribution. Sometimes we act as if we believe that the "nonacademic" subjects make only an indirect contribution to the development of students. This is not correct. Industrial arts has a subject matter, as do other nonacademic subjects. While it is essentially practical, there is sound theory behind each of the things it teaches.

Let's examine some of the direct contributions industrial arts can make:

Industrial arts develops an understanding of industry in our culture. If students do not know the principles of interchangeability of parts, of the relationship between amount of production and unit cost, of specialization of labor, of automation, and of industrial organization, they are not ready to live in our industrial society.

Rupert N. Evans is Chairman, Industrial Education Division, College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana. Reported from Illinois School Board Journal, *XXVII (November-December 1960), 18–22.*

It may be claimed that these principles can be taught in the social studies. Certainly some students could learn them there, but more students understand these principles better if they see practical examples of the effects of the principles which are so easy to incorporate in industrial arts.

Another direct contribution is the discovering and developing of student talents in technology and applied science. Psychologists claim that intelligence tests, and most aptitude tests as well, do their best job in predicting success in verbal and numerical fields (the "academic" subjects). They are convinced that many students have other abilities which intelligence tests do not measure well.

Talents in music, art, spatial relations, and mechanical ability certainly exist but they are difficult to measure except through experience in courses which utilize them. To neglect the development of student talents simply because they are not in numerical or verbal fields seems unforgivable.

Students need an opportunity to discover whether or not they have the aptitudes and interests for occupations in the technical and applied science fields. Industrial-arts subjects provide that opportunity.

Engineering is a field of applied science that serves well to demonstrate the functioning of that opportunity and at the same time demonstrate how industrial arts serves the student with high intelligence. Many high schools have had success with engineering drawing, engineering mechanics, and similar industrial-arts courses which may have a year of physics and two years of mathematics as prerequisites. The attrition rate in engineering colleges would certainly be improved if more high-school students had an opportunity to learn what engineering is *before* they enrol in college.

Another direct contribution industrial arts makes is in developing problem-solving skills relating to materials and processes. We need people who can determine when a process is not operating efficiently and determine how to correct it. The housewife who calls the TV repairman when the set is not plugged in, and the chemical technician who allows a batch of boiling plastic to explode have some things in common.

Similarly, the home owner who buys shutters made of pine instead of hemlock because the "more expensive ones must be best," and the designer who specifies that a truck body be made of steel because it costs less per pound than aluminum also have some things in common. These people, along with all of us, need practice in solving problems related to materials and processes.

A direct contribution that is very close to all of us is the skill in the use of common tools and machines that can be developed in industrial-arts courses. In the last few years we have seen the beginning of the end for the domestic servant and the handyman as occupational groups. If a man (or his wife) can't use a hammer, saw, screwdriver, pliers, and drill effectively, he had better plan to increase his income in some way—he is going to need it. Moreover, each year brings us more leisure time and the use of tools is necessary for more than a few hobbies.

These, then, are some of the direct contributions of industrial arts. What of the indirect contributions?

INDIRECT CONTRIBUTIONS

Every school should be concerned about its "under-achievers." Every year thousands of these students leave school when they have plenty of ability to succeed in school work. There are, apparently, many reasons why this happens. One reason is that these students don't see any immediate practical application of many of the things the school is trying to teach them.

This problem almost certainly will become more severe as our science and mathematics programs deliberately (and possibly necessarily) become more theoretical in nature. Industrial arts can show the immediate applicability, increase interest in these other subjects, and thereby aid in keeping the under-achiever in school.

Industrial arts can contribute significantly to the skill needed by professionals in other areas. Recently a group of physicists, all with Ph.D.'s, and all doing research work, said that they believed they should have taken industrial arts instead of physics in high school.

They explained that the content of the high-school physics course was repeated in college, but no one had taught them to build experimental apparatus. Because they did not know how to make orthographic drawings, a skill taught in all high-school drafting courses, they had difficulty in explaining what they wanted when they were provided with skilled workers to construct the needed equipment. Similar comments can be heard from dentists, engineers, and many other professional groups.

A third indirect contribution can be made to the students in special education classes. If classes are kept small enough, the individual instruction which is typical of industrial arts allows these students to work alongside their fellow students who are not in special education. All must work together outside of school and the school has an obligation to prepare them for this experience.

Here, then, are a few of the contributions industrial arts makes to the goals of the school. Your own industrial-arts teacher should be able to tell you about more.

•

Is my father handy with tools?" said the shop-class pupil. "Of all the things my father ain't, that's his ain'test."
—From *The Federal-Mogul Lines.*

Is There a Relationship?

Out-of-School Activities and Teacher Competence

JAMES W. POPHAM and LLOYD SCOTT STANDLEE

In The Nation's Schools

EMPLOYMENT application forms that administrators use to evaluate prospective teachers invariably contain a section for listing past or present out-of-school activities and interests. The attention given to such activities is due, in part, to the heightened emphasis on utilizing leisure time, which has been promoted by technological and industrial advances in recent years.

Administrators using a teacher's out-of-school activity record as a criterion, even though a minor one, of teaching competency, are basing judgment on an *untested assumption.*

Although many administrators use a prospective teacher's activity record, and perhaps wisely so, as an index of social acceptability or potential community influence, others have assumed that some sort of positive relationship exists between teachers' participation in out-of-school activities and teaching ability. That this notion is common is evident in the numerous teacher-education textbooks that urge teachers to participate in a wide range of out-of-school activities as an aid to their teaching effectiveness.

To test the validity of this assumption, we conducted a study on the relationships between several measures of teachers' out-of-school activities and two measures of teaching effectiveness.

James W. Popham is Assistant Professor, Division of Education, San Francisco State College, California. Lloyd Scott Standlee is Head, Proficiency Measurement Branch, U.S. Naval Personnel Research Field Activity, San Diego, California.

Reported from The Nation's Schools, *LXVI (November 1960), 97–99.*

Our subjects were 880 public-school teachers. This sample represents an entire year's (1954) teacher-education graduates of all Indiana institutions of higher learning with standard accreditation for teacher education. Only graduates who were teaching in Indiana public schools during the 1956-57 academic year were selected as subjects.

Two indexes of teaching effectiveness were used: (1) administrators' ratings of the over-all teaching effectiveness of the teachers, and (2) scores of the teachers on the Minnesota Teacher Aptitude Inventory (M.T.A.I.). The first measure is based on an administrator's perception; the second is based on an aspect of the teacher's personality revealed through the teacher's attitudes toward teacher-pupil relations. Data regarding the subjects' out-of-school activities were obtained through a questionnaire constructed for the study.

YES AND NO RELATION

Results of the study indicate that the question of whether there is a relationship between out-of-school activities of teachers and their teaching effectiveness must have a qualified answer. Whether the answer is yes, or no, depends on two factors: the particular out-of-school activity involved and the criterion of teaching effectiveness involved. This became apparent when the study revealed that some out-of-school activities were related to both criterions of teacher effectiveness, some were related to only one, and some were not related to either.

Only five of the 30 out-of-school activities were related to both criterions. These were: number of professional books read, attendance at P.T.A. meetings, time spent doing housework, participation in religious organizations, and participation in service organizations. All these relationships were positive in nature. Teachers who participated to a greater extent in these activities tended to receive higher administrators' ratings and to obtain higher M.T.A.I. scores. In terms of these criterions, the superior teacher evidenced greater participation in the foregoing activities than did the inferior teacher.

Five categories of out-of-school activities were related to administrators' ratings but not to M.T.A.I. scores. These were: current enrolment in college courses for credit, participation in relief-welfare organizations, leisure organizations, and individual and team sports. These relationships also were positive in nature, the better rated teachers participating to a greater extent in the activities than those teachers who received lower administrative ratings.

Nine categories of out-of-school activities were related to M.T.A.I. scores but not to administrators' ratings. These were: attending state, regional, and national professional meetings; attending local educational organizational meetings; reading professional periodicals; serving on educational committees; conferring with parents; attending school events; watching television; participating in professional organizations; and engaging in hobbies. These relationships were also generally positive, with participation reflecting a higher M.T.A.I. score.

The following are some of the eleven categories of out-of-school activities that were not related to either criterion of teacher effectiveness: engaging in other employment, preparing teaching assignments, reading nonprofessional literature, participating in military-patriotic organizations, and fraternal orders; and participation in noncommercial entertainment.

The results reveal that more out-of-school activities were significantly related to M.T.A.I. scores than to administrators' ratings. And of the 14 activities significantly related to M.T.A.I. scores, nine were of a professional nature, such as: attending professional meetings, engaging in educational committees, and conferring with parents.

The activities most consistently related to administrators' ratings were nonprofessional organizations and sports activities. Of 10 activities significantly related, six represented participation in these areas while only three represented participation in professional activities.

The study reveals, then, that the M.T.A.I. scores seem to be based on the professional aspects of teachers' out-of-school activities and that the administrators' ratings show little relationship to the professional activity areas but do emphasize activities associated with community life.

This suggests that administrators' ratings of teaching effectiveness may be based in large measure on so-called "human values" rather than on teaching competence *per se*.

This, of course, does not mean that administrators should discontinue asking prospective teachers about their out-of-school activities. The study does, however, indicate three limitations that administrators should take into consideration:

LIMITATIONS

1. Many out-of-school activities of teachers are not related to either of two criterions of teaching effectiveness: attitude toward pupil-teacher relationships, as indicated by M.T.A.I. scores; and over-all teaching effectiveness, as indicated by administrators' ratings.

2. The particular criterion of teacher effectiveness employed will influence the pattern of relationships between teaching effectiveness and out-of-school activities. The professional out-of-school activities, for example, are indicative of their attitude toward pupil-teacher relations, but not of administrators' ratings.

3. Administrators tend to let the community adjustment of teachers influence their ratings of teaching effectiveness. This does not mean that administrators should rate teachers *only* on behavior in the classroom; they should, however, be aware of what is included in their rating. •

TEACHERS can get a day off with pay in Bloomington, Ill., if an activity "encourages them to take a role in community affairs." The school board voted to pay one teacher to attend a Masonic meeting but turned down a request for another for a day's honeymoon.—From *School Management*.

For Twelfth-Grade Students?

Calculus in the Secondary School

ALBERT A. BLANK

In The Mathematics Teacher

Albert A. Blank is a member of the New York University Institute of Mathematical Sciences, New York City. Reported from The Mathematics Teacher, *LII (November 1960)*, 537–39.

MATHEMATICS programs in our schools are now receiving a great deal of attention from the mathematical professions. The Commission on Mathematics of the College Entrance Board, the School Mathematics Study Group (SMSG), and the University of Illinois Examination Committee on School Mathematics are a few of the currently active groups. This is a good time to look at our problems in perspective and to ask what we hope to accomplish in the lower curriculum for the purpose of directing the evolution of that curriculum.

The mathematics program in the grades should build the broadest possible base of concrete experience for later development in technology, science, philosophy, and mathematics itself. The student's development should not be aimed at any speciality; he is to seek a foundation of learning which will enable him to move in any direction according to his abilities and tastes.

Turning to specific possibilities, it is easy to see how the teaching of arithmetic in the elementary grades could be informed and unified, most notably by the gradual introduction of the literal symbolism of algebra. Perhaps beginning in the fourth grade, this can proceed in gentle stages so that at completion of the sixth grade the idea of arithmetical operations with literal symbols is as familiar as the process of counting. The applicability and interest of primary mathematics would be greatly enhanced thereby without prohibitive effort.

Looking to the future secondary curriculum, there is hope for a certain amount of extra freedom. Seventh-grade and eighth-grade programs are now being examined. The endless calculations of percentages may well be replaced by a course containing some number theory, intuitive algebra, and intuitive geometry. The SMSG texts for junior-high-school years represent a welcome step in that direction. If the change finds general acceptance (and we should push hard for it), by careful planning we may have an extra year in high school to devote to instruction beyond the present level. Let us assume that evolution of the curriculum will move in that direction and deal with that extra year as though it will become fact.

To formulate ideals in terms of a concrete objective for a universal secondary curriculum, we must at least consider the various demands of society outside the profession. In the physical sciences and in engineering, there is widespread sentiment for a curriculum which prepares for calculus in the freshman college year; or better, a curriculum which terminates with calculus. Even in the natural sciences and the social studies, the preferred background is calculus. In business management and economics, calculus is valued because it provides the language for the formulation of a large class of problems. The traditional curriculum up through analytic geometry is clearly adaptable to these demands, although there will be certain modifications in detail.

Preparation for calculus could be accomplished by the end of the third year in high school. This points to a definite subject matter which may by degrees be made into the standard curriculum for grades 7 through 11. So what shall we offer to those students energetic enough to elect another year of mathematics in grade 12?

It is calculus—a full year of it—that I propose as the proper matter for grade 12. There is no other subject which so suitably rounds out the elementary curriculum. The concepts, methods, and skills developed in the earlier subjects find application in calculus that is interesting and meaningful. In its manipulative and problem-solving aspects, calculus is very close to the spirit of secondary-school mathematics. The student is brought to the threshold of higher mathematics, physics, engineering, and a wealth of other applications. He has only to open the door and walk in.

PRACTICALITIES

Now for the practicalities: What kind of calculus course is it to be? Where are the teachers to be found? Where are the texts? How will the colleges treat the new crop of students? Can their high-school preparation in calculus be considered adequate for advanced training? Isn't it really impractical to propose such a drastic reorganization of our high-school mathematics?

Let me emphasize that no immediate drastic reorganization is proposed. The curriculum under discussion is to be the culmination of a planned period of evolution. There *are* high schools teaching calculus now. There will be more. It is not enough to leave the development to chance, however. We should seek to have such a curriculum in the larger schools in five years, and to have it generally in a decade. Without fixed goals, the objectives will be lost through inaction or indirection.

As for teachers, the present preparation program makes it more likely that they have had calculus than any of the alternatives commonly proposed, such as: probability and statistics, introduction to modern algebra, or elementary functions. It seems reasonable to presuppose that the present ranks will be adequate to supply the immediate need while new recruits are trained. It needs stating, also, that mathematics teachers feel more qualified to teach calculus than any of the alternatives.

As for texts, they are available—not many good ones, but if the program finds acceptance, new texts will be written. It is hoped that a general elevation of the curriculum would be accompanied by a supplanting of the present mountainous accumulation of meretricious texts. Both the problems of texts and improvement of teacher preparation are matters which cannot be left to chance; we shall have to work hard to attain those ends.

The course itself, in the best secondary-school tradition, would be essentially an intuitive calculus, foregoing a precise epsilontic statement of the concept of limit, for example. However, the student should be able to obtain clear insights into certain proofs. Even though he may not be able to complete the punctuation of a proof, he can be made aware that it is possible and desirable to do so. It is more important that he have a keen feeling for the basic concepts and their applicability and be able to formulate problems in terms of these concepts. Rigor may reasonably be left to the colleges.

It is possible that the colleges may be reluctant to immediately admit to their more advanced courses the high-school students with this four-year training. The question can easily be settled by means of a qualifying examination or personal interview. Once admitted with advanced standing, a student should expect and receive a calculus course in which the need for a more careful development is demonstrated and met.

This program should not be conceived as being only for the college-bound. Each student should be led as far along as is reasonably possible. Each stage mastered will multiply his opportunities in this highly technical culture. Good advisory service is certainly needed here. •

• Mathematics: The number of blasts that come from auto horns in a traffic jam is equal to the sum of the squares at the wheels.—From *Wisconsin Journal of Education.*

• A mathematics teacher at an Illinois high school was trying to put some practical applications into her course. She asked if anyone knew the cheapest method of placing a long distance telephone call. Up shot a hand, and a student said, "Reverse the charges."—From *Scholastic Teacher.*

Some Things to Consider

Publishing Your Book

HAROLD LAMBERT

In West Virginia School Journal

"WHY don't you write a book?" is a pleasant question often encountered by teachers today.

There are some good reasons for writing a book and a few hundred reasons for not writing one. Publication of a book is no magic road to riches. One good reason for *not* writing a book is the truth that most books lose money on a terrific scale. This is particularly true of the ambitious writer who undertakes to publish his own volume or resorts to employing a subsidy publisher.

Let us say that you have written a book. If it is a book of *merit* for general circulation, a regular publisher will probably take it on a straight royalty basis. You as the author do not put up money in this case—you take it in. Chances are, if your book is a good one, a publisher will take it because he needs the profits that will come when it is safely on the market. Publishers have to publish to make a living.

But a lot of writers do not consider the publisher a very good judge of literature after their manuscript has been turned down. (And good books *have* been written whose value and saleability the publishers did not recognize.) Oftentimes when their manuscripts are turned down by the regular publishers, some writers turn to the subsidy publisher.

Subsidy publishers are firms which advertise that they will help the budding author toward fame and fortune by publishing his book. Many of their customers are school teachers.

The subsidy publisher has a great deal to offer—if you have the money to pay for his services. He can give you a beautiful four-color cover in modern art. He can contact book reviewers (remember, you're paying for everything) and give them complimentary copies. He can guarantee an excellent job—usually far better than a small local printer. He will probably charge you around $2,000 if your book is about 300 pages.

And behold, you will be a published author.

The subsidy publisher will send 100 copies of your book to review-

Harold Lambert is Public Relations Director of the West Virginia Education Association. Reported from West Virginia School Journal, *LXXXIX (November 1960), 20–26.*

ers about the country. They may review the book, may toss it aside, or may take it home for the wife to read. Every big newspaper has tons of brightly covered books in shelves or basements.

The publisher will also send prettily-printed brochures or leaflets to hundreds of bookstores and literary columnists. They may even send one to your nearest TV station where the program director may see fit to have you interviewed from a local angle to show they are on the ball.

And then what happens?

Less than 10 percent of the subsidy-published books sell as many as 1,000 copies. Many sell only one or two hundred. One reason for the low sales figures is that large legitimate book stores do not buy subsidized books except under very peculiar circumstances—usually on the basis of the author being a local fellow.

There are exceptions. A few decades ago James Joyce wrote a book, paid for its publication, and gained literary immortality. The wife of a national magazine editor published a cook book on her own to "show her husband" and it has sold into the hundreds of thousands. But can you write a *Ulysses* or a prime grade cook book? You must answer this question if you are to justify hiring a publisher to turn out your tome.

What about your local printer? Chances are that he can save you money if you out and out buy your print job. He won't handle publicity and he won't send out samples. He'll just take your money and deliver the goods. The job might not have the sharp appearance of the professional book publisher—but you'll get a pretty good run for your money.

Many writers do make money handling their own books. They own them all, and they can sell them on personal tours. They don't get rich, but they make a few bucks and gain enough renown to get booked for lectures that pay off pretty well some times. •

On Writing Your Book

- Trying to find the central thought in some pedagogical literature is like looking for a sailboat in the Atlantic Ocean. Some educators apparently continue writing a sentence until the fountain pen they use runs out of ink. Then they reluctantly scratch a period.—*Elias Lieberman.*
- Often we tend to confuse ideas with facts, techniques, or practices. Many history books are full of facts but do not contain a single idea.—*Mortimer Adler.*
- The writer who takes a good noun such as host and turns it into an abominable verb, such as hosting, deserves the direst of punishments, such as a good roasting.—*Ben Brodinksy.*

Le Mort de Core?

EARL W. HARMER

In Phi Delta Kappan

THE core curriculum, just when it no longer appears necessary to devote time to its definition, may be moving toward its demise. The evidence is considerable.

Probably the most damaging one-two punch to the existence of core programs is the combination of the Conant reports and the current emphasis on college preparatory secondary programs. Conant completely ignored the core curriculum as one possible general-education program in *The American High School Today*. In addition, his recommendations emphasized the subject-centered curriculum.

Conant's recommendations for the junior-high school may prove to be even more damaging. While he acknowledges the possibility of a "selfcontained" organization, he limits it to the seventh grade. His rationale for a selfcontained classroom organization at that level is primarily that it provides transition from elementary to secondary experiences.

Conant's conclusions happen to fit the demands of the times. The tidal wave of post-war children is approaching high-school graduation. Colleges—along with mamma and papa—are banging the drums for precollege preparation. In their minds, such education is subject-centered rather than experience-centered.

A third reason for concern is illustrated by Grace Wright's U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 6, 1958. Mrs. Wright, as is her obligation, merely reported the facts. The facts were—and likely still are today—that 86 percent of all core programs were simply subject combinations of English and social studies. Furthermore, the adolescent-needs core program and the unstructured core programs have decreased in number in the nation's secondary schools.

There are additional signs of a debilitation of the core curriculum: Sagging interest in the core program is reflected in the programs of the conventions (if the 1960 AASA, ASCD, and NEA conventions are indicative). The number of articles on "core" in the *Education Index* has steadily decreased in recent years. Finally, in the writer's opinion there is not a widespread allegiance to the core curriculum on the part of second-

Earl W. Harmer is Assistant Professor of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus. Reported from Phi Delta Kappan, *XLII (November 1960), 67.*

ary-education theorists. Analysis of significant recent articles and books in secondary curriculum supports this opinion. Furthermore, colleges, by and large, have yet to design and establish educational programs for prospective core teachers.

So, if the core curriculum is not dead, is it dying? This writer believes it is not. There is other evidence to suggest that there is an *increasing* interest in the core curriculum.

First, there is a nucleus of proponents who believe that the core program is one of the soundest classroom organizations for achieving education. Advocates are numerous in public education as well as in colleges and universities. They continue to write, teach, and preach core.

Second, the accumulation of evidence of success with core curriculums cannot be ignored. Criticisms, such that it fails to teach sufficient subject-matter content, have been refuted many times. Research on core structure is extensive and current, resource materials are available, and there is a 30-year background of public-school core-curriculum practice.

The signs of professional apathy toward the core are offset by numerous indexes of vigorous effort. Annual core conferences such as the Ball State Core Conference in Muncie, Ind., and the Michigan State Core Conference at Battle Creek were held in 1960 with record attendance. Publications such as *The Core Teacher* have a growing circulation.

While the college curriculum is apparently more difficult to change than that of the public schools, nevertheless a professional sequence for prospective core teachers has been established at a number of teacher-training institutions. One of them is Alabama State College at Troy.

Inevitably, however, it is the will of the community and nation that determines the curriculum of the public schools. Inevitably, people will demand, in a 50-million to 60-million school population, that a program be instituted that can satisfy requirements of mastery of the fundamentals, individualize instruction, supply personal guidance, and give remedial and enrichment instruction. At the same time, the program must be a dynamic, interesting, democratic experience. This is a description—and the primary strength—of the core curriculum. ●

● Most things have two sides; it is very difficult to slice something so thin that it has only one side.—From *Sunshine Magazine*.

● For an idea ever to be fashionable is ominous, since it must afterwards be always old-fashioned.—*George Santayana*.

For Grades 7 to 12

A Sequential Program in Composition

CLARENCE W. HACH

In The English Journal

HOW should a sequential and incremental writing program be organized? Of what should it consist?

Since learning to write, like learning to read, is a gradual growth process, any sequential writing program must be planned with a knowledge of what the goals are and with knowledge of what the functions of the elementary, the junior-high, and the high school are to be in the fulfillment of these goals.

Only as there is such a program can one level be built intelligently on another and can teachers of seniors hope to have their students graduated as reasonably competent writers, reflecting credit on themselves and on their schools.

What would a six-year junior- and senior-high-school program be like in such a plan? At both levels, students must have many opportunities to practice writing. For most students a theme a week is desirable. A carefully planned theme every two weeks is indispensable. What students write about and what preparation and follow-up are made for each writing assignment are far more important than frequency, though the more students write under a well-planned and implemented program, the better.

Clarence W. Hach is Chairman of the English Department in the Evanston Township High School, Illinois. Reported from The English Journal, *XLIX (November 1960)*, 536–47.

In such a program, seventh-grade students would begin a formal study of the paragraph, both narrative and expository. They would learn to start a paragraph with an interesting, specific sentence, a sentence which at this level would serve the purpose of an opening paragraph of a full-length theme. Learning the elementary principles of topic outlining through one major division and several subtopics would introduce them to simple principles of organization. Since more of their paragraphs would be narrative rather than expository, they would first learn about chronological order and later some of the other simpler orders necessary for effective narrative and expository paragraphs.

Seventh graders would learn to write friendly letters and thank-you notes, forms of personal writing. In friendly letters, they would relate personal experiences and react to the world about them, and they would practice techniques of simple narration and exposition. Their writing would become meaningful as real communication if the letters are actually mailed to relatives or friends. They would learn early the importance of slanting their writing for a particular reader, a realistic writing problem few teachers of English do anything about.

A writing curriculum for seventh graders should also include practice in preparing brief reports based on reference reading. To teach students to put information into their own words, instruction should be given on how to take notes in topic outline form and how to summarize that information. This would help to prevent such bad habits as plagiarism and lack of original organization, both of which plague high-school teachers.

Another condition teachers of seventh graders can help to avoid is the stereotyped book report which consists mainly of retelling a plot. Assignments should make this type of report impossible, to prevent students becoming so addicted that in high school it will be extremely difficult to change them. Whatever the assignments, they should be of the kind that lead to a greater interest in books and permit students to continue practice in writing skills of the seventh-grade level.

EIGHTH GRADE

To relate the eighth-grade writing program to the seventh and to permit students to acquire the writing skill they had at the end of the seventh grade, the first month or six weeks of the eighth grade ought to be spent practicing the type of composition taught in grade seven.

The review would include the topic outline and the narrative and expository paragraph. If students perfect their ability to write well-organized paragraphs utilizing different orders, they will have the background to move on to the new writing assignments of grade 8.

Emphasis throughout the eighth grade should be on the narrative, expository, and descriptive paragraphs, for if students acquire proficiency in writing a variety of paragraphs, they have an excellent foundation for writing longer compositions. Nearly all the principles of good writing can be utilized in a paragraph and pupils should demonstrate competence in writing such units before beginning to write longer papers.

The eighth-grade writing course should continue the friendly letter and include such business letters as letters of request, order letters, and thank-you letters. By the end of the eighth grade, students should have mastered all elements of form for both personal and business letters.

Eighth-grade students should continue practice in report writing, both the kind based on reference reading and the kind involving writing on books. If teachers plan assignments sequentially to give students further practice in narrative, descriptive, and expository writing, they will develop their ability not only in synthesis of material but also in writing techniques.

The practice of reviewing the previous year's work should be continued for grades 9, 10, 11, and 12. The ninth grade should begin with a review of the topic outline and a variety of paragraphs, chiefly expository and descriptive.

Ninth-grade students should be able to write full-length themes of 250-300 words following concentrated work with the paragraph and some introductory two-paragraph themes. The two-paragraph theme serves as a bridge between the paragraph itself and the longer paper. The two-paragraph theme provides an opportunity for the teacher to teach about connecting the paragraphs with proper transition and introduces the students to the problems confronting them when they write a longer theme: selecting and limiting a subject, determining their purpose, etc. Throughout the ninth grade, students should continue to write short five-paragraph themes, as many as the teacher can evaluate properly.

Tenth-grade students, after a review of basic composition units through the five-paragraph theme, would begin a study of the argumentive or persuasive paragraph in which they would begin a formal study of techniques of critical thinking and methods of writing to present arguments effectively. From the paragraph of argument, students could be led to a full-length theme of argument, preferably one no longer than five paragraphs. Also as a part of grade 10, students should learn to write themes of explanation in which they tell how to do or make something.

Having learned to write effective paragraphs and to organize material properly in a variety of five-paragraph themes, students would be ready to concentrate on ways to make their writing interesting. Of course, teachers will have been working indirectly from the beginning on interest, but as students learn to write, they need consciously to be aware of techniques for creating interest.

The tenth grade will provide more practice in report writing, both on reference reading and on literature, and more practice writing essay examinations. Reports on reference reading at this level probably should become the formal paraphrase. Paraphrase writing is excellent preparation for the writing of the précis, a type of writing particularly appropriate for grade 11.

ELEVENTH GRADE

In grade 11, following the usual review, there should be much précis writing early in the year. The précis is a valuable composition for juniors, both as a help in study and as an exercise in condensation.

Although there are differences of opinion about the value of a reference paper in high school, preparing and writing such a paper *has* much value, especially if its length is confined to 1,000-2,000 words. Students need to face the problem of organizing a greater amount of information than they deal with in their regular themes. Learning to use some of the more obvious references in the library will also be helpful.

Throughout the junior year, students should continue to have much practice in writing on books and in taking essay examinations. They should also be expected to do some personal writing that enables them to reflect on their personal experiences and reveal growth in their observation of surroundings and experiences.

In grade 12, the theme of explanation can serve as a good introduction to new techniques of composition. The kind that demonstrates the relationship of cause and effect is a good place to begin. For seniors, the explanatory theme developed by analogy is also good practice.

From the explanatory theme students can go to the essay of opinion, which relates well to the analysis of editorials in newspapers and magazines. Such writing also provides opportunity for concentrated study of various aspects of clear thinking and semantics.

If a reference paper was required in the junior year, placed there to teach students the techniques required, another probably should be required in the senior year, where emphasis should be placed on the composition itself, on the adept synthesizing of information, and on the creative analysis of information.

Despite emphasis on longer and more involved types of composition during the senior year, students should continue to write short themes and single paragraphs, particularly paragraphs in essay examinations.

No course of study in composition will be worth very much unless the students are willing to work hard to improve. Too many equate composition with difficulty and dullness. They will continue to do so unless teachers plan writing assignments with their students in mind and according to psychological principles of sound motivation.

The way teachers evaluate writing assignments largely determines whether students will want to learn to write. To be interested in improving his ability, a student must feel that his teacher has respect for his efforts. The way a paper is marked will convey this impression if the teacher shows concern for the writer's ideas, even though they are fallacious, if the teacher shows his appreciation for a well-turned phrase, and if the teacher offers suggestions for improvement reasonably, not dogmatically.

Most students really want to improve their ability to write. As their teachers, we must have a sound sequential writing program. By the way we evaluate student writing we must show students our respect for them and our interest in their writing efforts. •

Word Frequency Applied to Stenography

LARS G. CRANDALL

In Journal of Business Education

IN a recent study of the vocabulary of business communication, it was found that the one hundred words which business communicators used most frequently comprised 52 percent of their communication. Relating this to shorthand, it is found that when writing these 100 most frequently used words in Gregg shorthand, the symbol of "U" as heard in "too" occurs more frequently than any other symbol.

A research contribution by Edwin H. Silverthorn is the basis for this information. Silverthorn analyzed 2,039 pieces of business communication, containing 300,000 words written by 1,012 different writers. A total of 11,564 *different* words was found.

Of the 300,000-word total, two words, "the" (ocurring 16,234 times) and "of" (ocurring 10,213 times), were the most frequently used, comprising about 9 percent of the communication. Ten words comprised about 25 percent and only 100 words comprised over 52 percent of the communication. The words listed as brief forms in *Gregg Shorthand Simplified* comprised approximately 50 percent of the 300,000 words studied by Silverthorn; but 35 of the 100 most-frequently used words found by Silverthorn are *not* included in the Gregg brief form list.

Considering that over half of the 300,000 words consisted of only 100 different words, the importance of developing an automatic response in writing these words becomes apparent. Also, it seems that the actual frequency of words as found by Silverthorn would serve as the basis for a good index of relative difficulty of words in shorthand dictation and transcription. Since the 100 most frequent words accounted for only a hundredth part of the total different words, it follows that the infrequent words should be difficult to write in shorthand since they are seldom repeated in reading and writing.

Pursuing the idea that infrequently occurring words would

Lars G. Crandall is a member of the faculty at Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah. Reported from Journal of Business Education, *XXXVI (November 1960)*, 67–68.

probably cause most spelling and transcription difficulties, this writer undertook to determine the average frequency of the words used in shorthand material as measured by the Silverthorn high frequency word count.

For this project, six tests used in a study in 1946 at De Paul University by Sister Mary Elfrida Elsen, were selected. The six tests were of 400 each dictated at 80 w.p.m. to 100 students.

After detailed tabulation procedures were completed, this writer is satisfied that transcription errors are related to the half of business communication which is made up of the infrequently occurring words. These words comprise 99 percent of the business vocabulary. If this is true, then doesn't it suggest that the ability to construct outlines for infrequent words is of major importance in the learning of shorthand?

Surely we have need to be grateful to Edwin A. Silverthorn for his research pertaining to frequency of words used in business communication. His findings present new opportunities and challenges to relate the business vocabulary to the study of shorthand. •

The Stenographic World

- "In teaching shorthand and typewriting we make a great point of accuracy," boasted the head of the business school.

"And how about speed?" asked the prospective student.

The college head thought a minute. "Well, out of last year's class, 16 married their boss within three months." —From *Florida School Bulletin*.

- "When I applied for a job," the stenographer said, "the manager had the nerve to ask if my punctuation was good. And you know what I told him? I said I'd never been late for work in my life."—From *The Balance Sheet*.
- Asked how she liked her boss, a young secretary replied, "Oh, he isn't so bad, only he's kind of bigoted. He thinks words can only be spelled one way."—From *Scholastic Teacher*.
- "I'd like to compliment you on your work," said the boss to his new secretary. "When are you going to give me the chance."—From *The Physical Educator*.
- And have you heard about the stenographer who left her coat at the office and took her boss to the cleaners?—From *Omaha World-Herald Magazine*.
- A career girl is one who is more interested in plots and plans than in pots and pans.—From *Cracklings*.

Not Remembering, but Drawing Conclusions

Decision Making: The Heart of Social-Studies Instruction

SHIRLEY H. ENGLE

In Social Education

If the purpose of the social studies is to be education for citizenship, if its primary concern is to be the quality of the beliefs and convictions which students come to hold on public questions, and if we are to be concerned with the development of skill at decision making, then we must abandon our use of what I shall call the ground-covering technique. And with it, we must abandon the wholly mistaken notion that to commit information to memory is the same as to gain knowledge.

By ground covering, I mean the technique of learning and holding in memory, enforced by drill, large amounts of isolated descriptive material without pausing to speculate as to the meaning or significance of the material, or to consider its relevance and applicability to any idea, problem, or issue past or present.

For example, simply reading and remembering the stories about Indians in our history, no matter how many times repeated, has never insured the development of accurate concepts about Indians. No correct generalizations can be drawn about the relationships between people of divergent cultures and histories. Or, if we refuse to deal contemplatively and critically with the material we are covering, the student may generalize haphazardly and may, without our help, make erroneous conclusions.

Shirley H. Engle is Associate Dean for Graduate Development at Indiana University, Bloomington. Reported from Social Education, *XXIV (November 1960), 301–04.*

M. I. Finley, a noted British historian, speaks about ground covering: "A mere telling of individual events in sequence, no matter how accurately done, is just that and nothing else. Such knowledge is meaningless, its mere accumulation a waste of time. Instead, knowledge must lead to understanding. In the field of history, this means trying to grasp general ideas about human events. The problem is to move from particular events to the universal; from the concrete events to the underlying patterns and generalities."

Equally fallacious is the background theory of learning, or the notion that we must hold the facts in memory before we are ready to draw conclusions or to think about their meaning. This theory is at variance with recognized scientific method and the ways in which careful thinkers approach an intellectual problem. The thinker or scientist frequently engages in speculation or theorizing about possible relationships, from which he deduces tests or possible facts which, if observable, verify his theory. To say that a thinker must know all that he needs to know, let alone hold all this in memory, before engaging in thought is to completely hog-tie his intellectual development. There is no valid reason in this respect for differentiating between a student trying to understand Indians and an Einstein speculating about the meaning of space.

When a strict adherence to ground covering is practiced in the classroom, the number of facts committed to memory is reduced to a relatively small number. These are the so-called basic facts which we learn, and just as promptly forget, over and over again. Thus, ground covering actually works to reduce and restrict the quantity of factual information treated in our classes.

What is needed is a vast multiplication of the quantity of factual material with which students are asked to deal in the context of reaching a reasoned conclusion about some intellectual problem. Such an enrichment will come about when we turn from our preoccupation with remembering to a more fruitful concern for drawing conclusions from facts or for testing our speculations and ideas about human events with all of the relevant data we are able to collect.

My thesis is simply this: Decision making should afford the structure around which social-studies instruction should be organized. The point is that students are not likely to learn to reach better decisions, that is, grounded and reasoned decisions, except as they receive guided and critically oriented exercise in the decision-making process.

Decision-making opportunities in the social-studies classroom may range from simple situations posing questions for class consideration to very complex social problems involving questions of public policy or individual behavior.

Some decisions involve essentially matters of fact; others, perhaps most, involve values as well as facts. In any instance, if decision making is to be the focus of social-studies instruction, we will need to introduce vastly larger quantities of factual information into our classrooms. Drill to the point of memory of a few basic facts will never suffice. Superficial coverage of one textbook will never be enough. The very moment that a conclusion is reached tentatively, the natural demand is for more facts with which to test the conclusion.

Testing conclusions means the introduction of large quantities of supplementary materials, with far too much content to be committed to memory. It means a reversal in the usual attitude on reading habits. Students will be expected to read more material, to read it more rapidly, and to read for purposes of getting general ideas or of locating relevant information rather than to laboriously read small amounts for purposes of committing to memory. It may mean eventual abandonment of textbooks and the substitution of numerous, more substantive, more informative, and more exciting books and materials.

If the quality of decision making is to be the primary concern of social-studies instruction, we must take steps to up-grade the quality of intellectual activity in the social-studies classroom. Research is demonstrating what is generously labeled "shoddy" thinking procedures in the social-studies classroom. Among the common errors in logic easily observed in social-studies instruction are: acceptance of an assertion as if it were a fact; confusing fact with opinion; and failure to agree on the meaning of key words before engaging in argument in which the meaning of the word is essential. Persistent practice in errors in logic of this kind can only lead to intellectual confusion and irresponsibility. If we are concerned with effective citizenship, we must not only provide the opportunity for decision making but we must ensure that decisions are made in keeping with well known rules of science and logic and that students get practice in making such decisions.

Finally, if responsible decision making is the end of social-studies instruction, we must recognize values formation as a central concern of that instruction. Real life decisions are ultimately value decisions. To leave a student unaware of the value assumptions in his decision, or to leave him untrained in dealing with value questions, is literally to lead an innocent lamb to the slaughter. Such a student could, and frequently does, return to our fold and say, "But you didn't tell me it was this way." Or he may sink into cynicism or misbelief. The question of what values he should hold probably cannot be settled in the classroom, but values can be dealt with intelligently in the classroom. The nature of the values which people hold can be made explicit, the issues over values can be clarified, and the ends to which holding to a particular value will lead can be established factually to some extent.

To duck the question of values is to cut the heart out of decision making. The basic social problem of America today is a problem of value. Simply stated, it is whether we value more the survival of a free America, which will require sacrifice for education, for materials of defense, etc., or whether we value more our right as individuals to spend our resources on extra fins for our cars and for all the other gadgets of conspicuous consumption. It is not impossible to predict the outcome of hewing to either choice. It is not at all certain that our students are being prepared to make the right decision and to make it in time. •

What Guides Can Be Used?

Guidance Institutes—N.D.E.A.

KATHERINE FOSSETT

In The Personnel and Guidance Journal

SINCE the adoption of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, guidance institutes have sprung up all over the country: institutes to better prepare counselors to assist in carrying out the purpose of American education. Many of these institutes will be of lasting value to the participants, but others will be remembered as expressions of an American custom to "climb on the band wagon," a band wagon which, unless carefully constructed, will be short-lived.

It is wise for an institution to engage in careful deliberation before launching an educational craft that could sink before the first tidal wave of enthusiasm subsides. What follows is a description of certain basic characteristics of several successful, long-established counselor-preparatory programs. This may serve as a guide for preliminary consideration before a college accepts the challenge of preparing personnel to serve effectively in the guidance programs of the schools.

1. The college must be of a high caliber. The instructional staff must be composed of highly qualified personnel with broad professional and experiential backgrounds. They must be well versed in their areas of specialization and must be able to see their subjects, not as entities, but as part of the educational mosaic. The very nature of school counseling demands proficiency based on an interdisciplinary foundation composed not only of guidance and counseling techniques, but also of psychology, philosophy, instructional methods, administration, and school finance.

Katherine Fossett is Supervisor of Guidance in the Secondary Schools of Prince Georges County, Maryland. Reported from The Personnel and Guidance Journal, *XXXIX (November 1960), 207–9.*

Meeting this requirement is no simple task. While delving deeply into an area of specialization, one sometimes loses sight of related disciplines. If the institute experience is to be of lasting value to the participant, those who teach must see themselves in proper perspective as members of the instructional team.

2. Instructional resources are imperative. The library must be adequately equipped with traditional and current publications so as to offer factual data on every aspect of guidance. With constant technological and sociological advance, theory and technique soon become obsolete. It is imperative that current publications revealing new

approaches based on scientific investigations be available.

Provisions must also be made to test newly acquired techniques and skills. Many leading programs provide opportunity for the "intern" to receive actual counseling experience under the direction and supervision of professional personnel.

The institution should also consider the provision of consultative service by those informed about noncollegiate advancements. Experts in occupational fields, research consultants, employment service representatives, and other agents should be available to enrich the program. Counselors in public schools will be working with a cross-section of the population and the institute experiences should be commensurate with the task at hand.

3. The learning experiences incorporated in the scope of the institute must give the counselor more than a "speaking acquaintance" with the situations encountered on the job. Presently, there is no adequate description of the role of the counselor. As long as this nebulous, unending sphere of operation exists, the counselor must have a working knowledge of many subjects beyond that required of classroom teachers. Provision for learning experience in techniques of test selection, administration and interpretation, educational planning emphasizing both terminal and continuing programs, use of occupational information, individual counseling, utilization of community resources, and research and evaluation are imperative. Each plays an integral part in the counselor's daily work and cannot be excluded from preparatory experience.

With the existing pupil-counselor ratio, it is virtually impossible to maintain an individual relationship. The counselor, therefore, must be proficient in methods of group guidance. The content of the institute must be so diverse as to be directly proportional to the student population which guidance serves.

4. The sponsoring college or university must examine its own philosophy in light of the extent to which it can individualize learning experience. The entire guidance program is based on the recognition and belief in the individual; instruction methods and course content must exemplify the same philosophy.

The principles which guide learning experiences of the child must also apply to the graduate student. The counselor trainee brings to the classroom all his hopes and aspirations, his abilities and limitations, and the many personal and professional mores which exert pressures on him from all directions. He brings with him the results of the forces operating within the area where he works whether it be the overcrowded metropolitan city or the rural community.

The institution must accept these

differences and provide learning experiences which begin where the trainee is and direct him forward. Content must be of sufficient depth, breadth, and scope to provide activities which have meaning for each participant and his unique situation.

CAREFUL SCREENING

5. Careful screening of participants is essential. The National Defense Education Act states that counselors and teachers preparing to be counselors are eligible for admission to the program. Not all persons, however, will have the necessary qualifications and abilities essential for proficiency in the guidance field. To protect itself and the countless number of school systems which it serves, the college must formulate essential qualifications and adequate screening devices so that only promising professional personnel are admitted to the program.

In screening candidates, it is important that all sources of information be tapped. Candidates' letters of application can be valuable. The usual personal data form with a page for a brief biographical sketch will be of aid.

It is essential that the candidate present letters from his principal, supervisor, and other professional persons who are familiar with his teaching and counseling work. If possible, the candidate should be interviewed by a member of the institute staff. Personal appearance, ability to verbalize, confidence, and poise are a few characteristics that cannot be communicated in writing.

6. Both during and after the institute experience, the college must take time to evaluate the activity in light of its objectives. The following are some essential questions that need to be included in the evaluation:

What is the primary purpose of the institute? What do the public schools need? What do the counselors need? Is the content planned to meet the needs of the participants? Beyond the core of common learnings essential for all counselors, is the program flexible enough to include all areas of interest and ability? How do the participants view the experience? Can they see the continuity between the learning experience and the on-the-job situation? How can the program be improved?

This evaluation may not be a pleasant experience for it may reveal that the content is not meeting the needs or that needless duplication of learning experience persists. This, however, can be rewarding if the evaluation takes place while there is time to adjust the program.

The National Defense Education Act has provided a most beneficial stimulus to further the entire guidance movement, a movement to assist in the stabilization of American education in an era of uncertainty. The eye of the public is on us—if we fail, we have only ourselves to blame. ●

★ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

The New Broom.—The new year did not start with a bang, thanks largely to the structure of a government which installs a new Congress on January 3, asks for a budget proposal from the old President a week later, and only settles down to a possible new approach after the January 20 inauguration of a new President.

John F. Kennedy, elected but not yet sworn in, was careful not to encroach on the prerogatives of Dwight D. Eisenhower. He sifted names and made appointments. He had appointed informal committees and he received informal reports. But only after January 20 came the shape of the legislative program which, until then, was not made public in detail.

Congress started out with a debate on its own rules of procedure. This debate had to come first; it affects all future progress and its outcome is bound to affect progress of legislation in controversial areas, including education. Where educators had been waiting for quick introduction of major bills with strong backing or the blessing of the new Administration, there was instead a notable gap.

There were the usual bills, introduced to keep alive some old ideas, or to produce publicity for their sponsors, or to show good intent. But there was no quick move to indicate a coordinated program to deal with education.

Two Michigan Democrats, Pa McNamara and Philip Hart, introduced S8 in the Senate. They managed to get the same number for the same bill which had met with Senate approval last February, and they provided a rallying point for federal support for school construction and teachers' salaries. They made no claim that this was "th Administration Bill."

Sen. McNamara, having led the fight last year, was about to switch from the Education subcommittee to the chairmanship of the Senate subcommittee on Labor, while Sen. Wayne Morse (D-Ore.) sought to take over the key spot on education.

Task Force Report.—A special task force on education meanwhile had been meeting here in great secrecy to produce a special report for the new President. Under the chairmanship of Frederick Hovde, president of Purdue University, the six-man committee went far beyond earlier efforts produced by the White House Conference on Education in 1955, the Rockefeller Report of 1958, or the National Goals document of late 1960. It ranged from things the new President could do with a stroke of the executive pen to legislative changes running into billions of dollars. Some of its recommendations were not particularly surprising, while others were sufficiently different to look like trial balloons:

1. For every child in average daily attendance in the public schools, Congress should appropriate $30 to go to the states and then to local school boards for school construction, teachers' salaries, or "other purposes related to the improvement of instruction." Estimated annual cost is $1.2 billion.

Unlike other recent school bills, the task force based its request on average daily attendance, not on school-age children. It also differed in mentioning "other purposes" besides construction and salaries.

2. Instead of the equalization feature contained in last year's S8 as passed by the Senate, the task force asked for an additional $20 per child "for states with personal income per student . . . below 70 percent of the national average."

"It is estimated that roughly one quarter of the states might benefit from this legislation (mostly in the South), that approximately 7 million children would be helped toward full educational opportunity, and that the annual cost would be $140 million."

3. For big cities with a population of more than 300,000, the task force asked for an additional $20 per child in average daily attendance. This would benefit about 6 million children and would cost about $120 million annually.

4. For higher education, the report asked for at least half a billion dollars for the first year for academic facilities. Of this, $350 million would be matching grants, $150 million in loans.

The existing program for college dormitories, administered by the Housing and Home Finance Agency, the report termed "outstandingly successful." It asked for an increase in the loan authorization of $1.4 billion over the next four years.

5. The six-man committee suggested changes in the National Defense Education Act of 1958. It saw no need for the student disclaimer affidavit. It recommended that all teachers become eligible for the forgiveness feature now available only for loans to those who become public-school teachers. It also wants more money to be made available for such loans. Similarly, there are to be more fellowships, especially for teachers on the job who want to upgrade themselves.

6. The committee would like to see the appointment of a President's Advisory Committee on Education, as well as effective follow-up for the recommendations already made by the President's Science Advisory Committee to strengthen science and technology.

For universities, there should be more generous treatment by the Bureau of the Budget in figuring administrative costs of government-sponsored research on campus. Administrators in higher education long have complained that the research was fine but that they were losing money on administrative and overhead costs; in effect, the colleges and universities are subsidizing government research when the government should instead be helping them to meet their mounting expenses.

Finally, the Internal Revenue Service was asked to change a recent ruling which gave somewhat less favorable tax treatment to gifts to higher education.

Adoption of the entire report seemed unlikely even though it restates known needs in the field of education. Mr. Kennedy said that "there is no more important domestic responsibility than education," but then added: "I don't know whether we have the resources immediately to take on the whole program, but we'll have to decide the degree of need and set up a list of priorities."

Pitfalls of Statistics.—Before the American College Public Relations Association last year, Elmer West unburdened himself. He recalled the tendency to gather statistics with a hay rake and then to measure them with a micrometer.

Dr. West is director of the Office of Statistical Information and Research of the American Council on Education. He noted with pleasure that more data about education are now available and that there is genuine concern with the improvement of the collection of the data. He also saw much room for improvement.

By way of example he referred to a compilation of "Federal Funds for Higher Education," released in March 1959. "One diagram," said Dr. West, "showed funds ranging from $800 million to $3¼ billion per year, and another showed a range of $400 to $500 million per year for the same span of years . . . There were reasons for the differences, of course. The significant fact, however, was that the reports were prepared by different branches of the Office of Education, and neither report gave adequate attention to the other report."

There were other examples, based on different sources, to round out Dr. West's thesis that it is difficult enough to define "fact" but "higher education," if not beyond description, appears to be beyond definition.

Dr. West explained that he keeps close to his desk a sobering thought attributed to Sir Josiah Stamp:

"The Government are very keen on amassing statistics. They collect them, add them, raise them to the nth power, take the cube root and prepare wonderful diagrams. But you must never forget that every one of these figures came in the first instance from the village watchman, who just puts down what he damn pleases."

Concluded Dr. West: "We may have to establish a new program for the proper education of village watchmen."

Team Teaching.—A surprising number of communities have taken steps in recent months to launch new team-teaching programs, reports Robert H. Anderson in a special study for the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Dr. Anderson, associate professor in the Harvard Graduate School of Education, offered this definition:

"Team teaching is an emerging pattern of personnel utilization in the schools. Several teachers are organized into a 'team' with the joint responsibility for the planning, execution, and evaluation of an education program for a large group of children (usually, the number of teachers multiplied by 25-30). The team pattern allows for greater *flexibility* in the assignment of teachers to tasks and in groupings of pupils for instructional purposes . . ."

Clerical aides usually are included in the team and there is a greater tendency to use electronic, mechanical, and technical aids to instruction.

Team teaching is quite new. The term is being used quite loosely, "to such an extent that there is very great danger of widespread misunderstanding, improper or invalid illustrations, and eventual disrepute of the idea. It therefore behooves all educators to examine the literature and to acquire sufficient background so that they may recognize examples of genuine team teaching. Other procedures may more accurately be called shared teaching or modifications of departmental organization."

Obscure Gains.—Among the accomplishments out of Washington during the past year are these:

√Education of war orphans has been broadened by Congress under Public Law 86-785. It now includes the children of deceased veterans of *peacetime* service. The *wartime* veteran, under the new law, must have died while in actual service, or as the result of a service-connected condition. The *peacetime* veteran, however, must have died during the actual performance of military duties or as a result of extrahazardous service.

√A ruling by the Internal Revenue Service will be of help to teachers who live on a school's premises. For years, IRS held that these teachers owe no tax on their lodgings or meals furnished them for the convenience of the employer. In 1959, IRS switched its signals and said that these services furnished to the family of a teacher became taxable compensation. Without explanation, in late 1960, IRS switched again and restored the *status quo*.

√A Supreme Court ruling, 5-4, held that the Arkansas legislature was wrong in requiring all of its public-school teachers to list their organizational affiliations. Original purpose of the Arkansas law had been to force members of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People to identify themselves as members. The Court's majority opinion held that the statute was too broad in asking all teachers to list all of their affiliations. ●

• Educational News •

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

College of Education at Cortland, N. Y.: **Donovan C. Moffett,** acting president since April 1959, has been appointed president. He succeeds **Donnal V. Smith,** resigned.

University of Chicago, Ill.: **George Wells Beadle,** acting dean of the faculty, California Institute of Technology, has been named chancellor, to succeed **Lawrence A. Kimpton,** resigned.

Hollins College, Va.: **John A. Logan, Jr.,** formerly assistant professor at Yale University, is the new president.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

Rutgers State University, New Brunswick, N. J.: **William Jansen,** retired superintendent of schools, New York City, has been appointed visiting professor of education in the graduate school of education.

Michigan State University, East Lansing, Mich.: **Carleton W. Washburne,** formerly chairman of the department of education, Brooklyn College, N. Y., has been appointed Distinguished Professor of Education.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Ray Bryan, head of the department of vocational education, Iowa State University, Ames, will succeed **Charles F. Martin** as executive secretary of the Iowa State Education Association on his retirement in July.

Harold V. Webb has been appointed acting executive director of the National School Boards Association, succeeding **W. A. Shannon,** resigned.

Robert D. Anderson, director of the Southern Regional Educational Board, has announced his resignation to become executive vice-president of Auburn University.

Shannon McCune, provost of the University of Massachusetts and a member of the U. S. National Commission for Unesco, has been named director of Unesco's department of education, with headquarters in Paris.

Emlyn Jones, professor of history and education, University of Wisconsin, has been elected president of the National Council for Social Studies.

The Rev. Laurence J. McGinley, president of Fordham University, has succeeded **Jay F. W. Pearson,** president of the University of Miami, as president of the Association of Urban Universities.

William A. Jenkins, professor of elementary education, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, has been named editor of *Elementary English*, succeeding **John J. DeBoer,** professor of education, University of Illinois, who is retiring after 18 years' service.

RECENT DEATHS:

Strang Lawson, professor of English, Colgate University, for 29 years, and editor of *The English Record*, at the age of 61.

AASA Elects, Meets

IRBY B. CARRUTH, superintendent at Austin, Tex., is the new president-elect of the American Association of School Administrators. Dr. Carruth, who is now vice-president of the AASA, will become president in March 1962. He was chosen in a December mail ballot.

Named vice-president in the balloting was Natt B. Burbank, superintendent at Boulder, Colo.

The AASA will hold the first of its three 1961 regional conventions this month in San Francisco, Feb. 25-28. The other two conventions will be held in St. Louis, Mar. 11-14, and Philadelphia, Mar. 25-29. Theme of all three conventions will be: "Education for the Challenges of Tomorrow."

During the St. Louis convention, Dr. William C. Menninger, president of The Menninger Foundation, Topeka, Kan., will be given the 1961 American Education Award for his outstanding contribution in the broad field of education.

Forrest E. Conner, superintendent at St. Paul, Minn., retiring president, will preside at the three conventions. Benjamin J. Willis, general superintendent at Chicago, Ill., and currently president-elect, will assume the presidency of the Association in March.

New Media Council

THIRTEEN national organizations recently joined forces to form the Educational Media Council, designed to coordinate the efforts of professional and trade associations in the media fields—films, television, books—in the interests of better service to American education.

As its first major undertaking, the Council has requested a grant from the U. S. Office of Education for the preparation of a national directory of the newer educational media—the films, videotapes, filmstrips, slide sets, tapes, and recordings which are valuable for educational use.

Charles F. Schuller, Michigan State University, has been named chairman of the Council. The organizations making up the membership in the group include: American Book Publishers Council, American Library Association, American Textbook Publishers Institute, NEA Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, Educational Film Library Association, Electronics Industries Association, Joint Council on Educational Television, Learning Resources Institute, National Association of Educational Broadcasters, National Educational Television and Radio Center, National Audio-Visual Association, National University Extension Association, and University Film Producers Association.

10 Years of Ford Grants

THE Ford Foundation has made grants totaling more than $1.3 billion during its first 10 years as a national philanthropy, according to a review of its activities recently published as part of its 1960 Annual Report.

The review revealed the following pattern in the Foundation's grant-making from 1951, when it changed from primarily a local philanthropy in Detroit to a national institution, through 1960:

Of the $1,339,700,000 in grants and Foundation-administered projects, the largest share, $533.7 million, went for formal educational programs. Other major categories included: hospitals and medical schools, $295.7 million; international activities, $258.9 million;

arts and science, $97.9 million; and public affairs, $68 million.

Safety Study

A TWO-YEAR pilot study of school-age accidents and their relation to safety education, has been announced by the NEA's National Commission on Safety Education.

The study, which has received a grant of $65,678 from the National Institute of Health, will attempt to provide insight for increasing the safety of school children through more effective administration and protective measures as well as through better safety instruction.

Stanley Abercrombie, assistant secretary of the Commission, and Norman Key, Commission executive secretary, will be principal investigators for the study.

Unesco Delinquency Study

A STUDY by Unesco of the causes of juvenile delinquency and the remedies best suited to this and other aspects of social maladjustment of youth has been approved by the Program Commission of Unesco in Paris.

The resolution proposing the study was made by New Zealand's representative, C. E. Beeby, who stated that although juvenile delinquency was not a new thing in the world, there has been a noticeable increase in the past 10 years.

The Unesco study will attempt to find out why juvenile delinquency occurs in different countries, what they are doing about it, and with what success.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Feb. 11-15, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Detroit, Mich.

Feb. 22-25, American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 25-28, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, San Francisco, Calif.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS

Mar. 5-8, Association for Higher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 11-14, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, St. Louis, Mo.

Mar. 12-16, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 18-22, Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, Atlantic City, N. J.

Mar. 25-28, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, Philadelphia, Pa.

Mar. 25-29, National Science Teachers Association, Chicago, Ill.

April 2-7, Association for Childhood Education International, Omaha, Neb.

April 4-7, National Catholic Educational Association, Atlantic City, N. J.

April 5-8, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Chicago, Ill.

April 10-25, National Art Education Association, Miami Beach, Fla.

April 16-22, National Library Week.

April 24-28, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA, Miami Beach, Fla.

April 26-29, National Association for Gifted Children, New York City.

June 25-30, National Education Association, Atlantic City, N. J. ●

Diary of a Russian Schoolteacher. F. Vigdora. New York: Grove Press Inc., 1960. Pp. 256. $5.00.

Robert M. Hutchins writes in the introduction to this book: "The statistical approach to Russian education, which is about all we get in this country, has its weaknesses. . . . the effect of the statistical method is to give us the impression that Russian children—and teachers too—are simply numbers . . .

"The importance of this book lies in the fact that it helps us to understand Russian education and the Russian people in a way that the figures can never do. It is an account of what goes on when a dedicated teacher and 40 twelve-year-old boys try to learn together what the community has decided they ought to know."

This is a story of the triumphs and defeats, the daily struggles and crises of a teacher grappling for the minds and hearts of her students. Although the story is fictional, the book actually grew out of a dairy kept by the author when she first started teaching in a school in Magnitorgorsk.

English in the Secondary School. Edwin H. Sauer. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 245. $3.75.

Dr. Sauer, a former secondary-school teacher, is now an associate professor at the graduate school of education, Harvard University. He states in the preface that this book grew from his experience with teaching a course in Curriculum and Methods in English in Secondary Schools.

In this book, the author makes an effort to present the many activities in English as *one* subject; he demonstrates the interrelatedness of composition, punctuation, spelling, grammar, vocabulary, and literature. He devotes several chapters to the new curriculum; to the literature of the "new grammar," or structural linguistics; and a reconsideration of literary programs in the high school. He gives much attention to the renewed emphasis on composition.

Among the specific helps for the new teacher are: a sequential program in composition for grades 7-12; suggestions on new and more challenging literary materials for the secondary school; and an outline of an advanced placement program.

Summerhill. A. S. Neill. New York: Hart Publishing Company, 1960. Pp. xxiv + 392. $5.75.

This is the story of Summerhill, a school located in England that operates in direct violation of many of the commonly accepted traditional practices associated with educating children. The sub-title of the book is "A Radical Approach to Child Rearing."

The author is the headmaster of Summerhill and he writes from 40 years of experience with guiding children in an atmosphere of educational freedom that is probably unmatched anywhere in the world. In telling the Summerhill story many of the established approaches to child development are examined and challenged. Called "the world's greatest experiment in bestowing unstinted love and approval on children," Summerhill is an example where the principles of freedom and nonrepression are actually applied—without reservation.

The book, in places, may tend to be shocking, but A. S. Neill forcefully presents his case, showing how his philosophy works in bringing up well-adjusted children. Some American educators may find McNeill's viewpoints too radical, but they are bound to find the viewpoints interesting.

Educational Research for Classroom Teachers. John B. Barnes. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1960. Pp. xvi + 229. $4.00.

This book is designed to aid the classroom teacher and the school administrator in developing action research skills. Research methods are described as applied to a student-teacher situation with a step-by-step presentation of procedure.

The book is divided into two parts. The first section is devoted to the nature of educational research, including a historical treatment. The second section is devoted to individual case studies.

Dr. Barnes has had teaching experience at the secondary school, junior college, and university levels. He is presently director of the division of educational research and field services, College of Education, Arizona State University.

More Resources for Education. Seymour E. Harris. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. x + 86. $2.95.

This is the third John Dewey Society Lecture. Professor Harris argues that this nation has the resources and the means to solve our educational problems and poses the question of whether we have the will.

Professor Harris served for many years as chairman of the Department of Economics at Harvard and at present is Lucius N. Littauer Professor

JUST OFF THE PRESS — SEND FOR THE NEW

Free McKnight's Catalog

TYPICAL GUIDANCE BOOKS

- Good Manners: The Magic Key
- As Others Like You And Tests On Social Usage
- College Know-How
- Guidance In Elementary Schools
- Selecting An Occupation
- Understanding Ourselves
- Growing Up
- Exploring Occupati
- Success In The World Of Work
- The Bobby G
- You And Your Future
- You And Your Work Ways

FILL IN COUPON TO RECEIVE CATALOG. DESCRIBES OVER 23 INTERESTING, PRACTICAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE BOOKS.

McKnight & McKnight Publishing Co.
Dept. 827, Bloomington, Illinois

Name ....
Address ....
City .... State ....

of Political Economy. In this volume, he states that resources ear-marked for education in the next 10 years must outstrip the rate of our general economic growth. He documents the need for the federal government to assume greater responsibility for education, declaring that even with many improvements in financing and spending, local and state governments cannot carry the burden unaided.

The author is not content to regard money as the single key to our educational well-being. He challenges educators to recognize that new conditions demand new solutions, that time-honored habits that do not stand up to critical tests of educational effectiveness must be relinquished.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

Stories from Hawaii; Stories from Japan; and **Stories from Mexico.** Edward W. and Marguerite P. Dolch. Champaign, Ill.: The Garrard Press, 1960. Pp. viii + 167; viii + 168; and viii + 168. $2.75 each. Three Folklore of the World books designed for grade 3 reading level and grades 2-8 interest level.

Friction All Around. Tillie S. Pine and Joseph Levine. New York: McGraw-Hill Whittlesey House Books, 1960. Pp. 48. $2.50. Discusses the principles of friction in examples children can understand and includes simple, easy-to-perform experiments.

Myths and Enchantment Tales. Adapted by Margaret Evans Price. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1960. Pp. 192. $2.95. Myths of Greece and Rome in simple language. Illustrations by Evenly Urbanowich.

SECONDARY

The Vocational Maturity of Ninth Grade Boys. Donald E. Super and Phoebe L. Overstreet. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960. Pp. xii + 212. $5.25. A Career Pattern Study from Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation.

Understanding Arithmetic. Maytscherl W. Reckless. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. x + 372. $3.76. Designed as basic arithmetic text for grades 7-9 or as a remedial or refresher book for grades 7-12.

Jory and the Buckskin Jumper. Priscilla D. Willis. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1960. Pp. 230. $3.50. Story of how a 4-H club works. For ages 10-14.

COLLEGE

Barron's Guide to the Two-Year Colleges. Seymour Eskow. Great Neck, N.Y.: Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 1960. Pp. vi + 370. $2.98.

How to Get Into College. (Revised Edition.) Frank H. Bowles. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 185. $1.15, paperback.

GUIDANCE

Careers and Opportunities in Science; A Survey of All Fields. (Revised Edition.) Philip Pollack. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1960. Pp. 194. $3.95.

GENERAL

The Self-Contained Classroom. Edited by Edith R. Snyder. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1960. Pp. vii + 88. $1.25. Contains nine articles on the subject.

The Sycamore Warrior: A Mystery of Ancient Egypt. John M. Schealer. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 180. $3.50.

On Population: Three Essays. Thomas Malthus, Julian Huxley and Frederick Osborn. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1960. Pp. 144. $.50. A Mentor original, paperback.

A Primer on Communism; 200

Questions and Answers. (Revised Edition.) George W. Gronyn. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 192.

Special Education of Physically Handicapped Children in Western Europe. Wallace W. and Isabelle W. Taylor. New York: International Society for the Welfare of Cripples, 1960. Pp. xv + 497.

A Decade of Court Decisions on Teacher Retirement, 1950-59. NEA Research Division. Washington, D.C. National Education Association, 1960. Pp. 50. $.50.

Progress of Public Education in the United States of America, 1959-60. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin OE-10005, 1960. Pp. v + 68. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. $.30.

Dona Perfecta. Benito Pérez Glados. Translated by Harriet de Onis. Great Neck, N.Y.: Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 1960. Pp. 235. $.95. One of the Foreign Language Classics in Translation series.

Platero and I. Juan Ramon Jimenez. Translated by William H. and Mary M. Roberts. New York: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1960. Pp. 128. $.50. A Signet classic.

War Commentaries of Caesar. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1960. Pp. 335. $.50. A new translation by Rex Warner.

AUDIO-VISUALS

Opportunities for Learning: Guidelines for Television. Edited by Alexander Frazier and Harold E. Wigren. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Division of Audio-Visual Instructional Service, 1960. Pp. 79. $1.50.

Aviso: A Look Back and a Look Ahead. Pp. 76. Available from Long Island Audio Visual Council, P.O. Box 174, Garden City, N.Y. $.75.

Gateway to French and **Gateway to Spanish.** Each album contains two 12" LP records, a conversational manual and an alphabetical phrase index. Baltimore, Md.: Ottenheimer Publishers, Inc., 1960. $7.95 each.

READER INFORMATION SERVICE

Send in this coupon to get additional information easily and quickly from the advertisers in this issue and about the materials listed in "New Educational Materials."

☐ **McKnight & McKnight Guidance Catalog**

☐ **American Educator Encyclopedia**

☐ **Prakken Publications**

I would also like more information on the following books and other materials listed in this issue:

....

....

....

....

Name .... **Position** ....

Address F-61

BOOKS, BOOKLETS, AND CHARTS
For Your Industrial-Education Department

Modern School Shop Planning

The only book on the market that completely covers the planning problems of school shops—equipment lists, safety factors, principles of purchasing, standards, suggested shop layouts, etc.

184 Pages **$3.85**

Machinists' Ready Reference

Compiled by C. Weingartner. Contains 100 of the most used tables and charts. Pocket-sized. The handiest, neatest machinists' handbook yet devised. Well indexed. **$1.50**

Diamond Dust

By Tom Diamond. A collection of tongue-in-cheek articles emphasizing practical pedagogical points. Light reading-with-a-purpose. 112 pages. **$2.00**

Campbell's Drafting Time Savers

"Machine Drafting Data," a four-page quick-reference chart. "The Dimensioning of Machine Drawings," a 20-page booklet giving information on rules of dimensioning.

$1.00 each item for 1-5 copies; $.85 each, 6-10 copies; $.75 each, 11-50 copies; $.60 each. 51 or more copies.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

On-approval copies of these publications available to administrators and supervisors for 10-day examination.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

330 Thompson Street
Ann Arbor, Michigan

BULK REDUCES TO BASICS

... in reference material, too!

Years ago, when

THE AMERICAN EDUCATOR ENCYCLOPEDI
was first published, it was designed to be read and used by all ages...to be free of excessive wordage, yet comprehensive in coverage...and fairly priced.

Today, at Tangley Oaks, we uphold these same convictions. As proof: THE AMERICAN EDUCATOR ENCYCLOPEDIA is still available in 10 volumes. Reckoned in terms of today's dollar value, the price has not advanced in almost 30 years.

Only by a high order of planning, selection and writing has this been possible and "encyclopedia obesity" been avoided...with no sacrifice in quality, with wide coverage in the fewest possible words. Its 10,276 articles in the 43 fields of human knowledge—with 8,200 magnificent illustrations and 1,500 cross references—enlighten, satisfy and explain the speeded-up demand of knowledge in our modern world.

Publishers of:

AMERICAN EDUCATOR ENCYCLOPEDIA
WONDERLAND OF KNOWLEDGE
MY BOOK HOUSE
PICTURESQUE TALE OF PROGRESS
BOOK TRAILS
JUNIOR INSTRUCTOR
WORLD TOPICS YEAR BOOK

TANGLEY OAKS
EDUCATIONAL CENTER
publisher's house Lake Bluff, Illinois
"Dedicated to the Creation of Better Books"

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

CONTENTS

The Nature of Good Teaching
School and Society 1
Tragedy of the Conant Report
Phi Delta Kappan 4
Educational Technology . . The School Review 8
How the Junior-High School Came to Be
Educational Leadership 13
Interview with the Council for Basic Education
School Management 16
Grouping Practices . . Those First School Years 20
Terminal Education
Second Thoughts on Terminal Education 25
The Dangers of Social Adjustment
Teachers College Record 28
A Study of Promotion Policy
The Elementary School Journal 32
New Developments in Secondary-School Science
NASSP Bulletin 34
Questioning Science . . The Educational Forum 38
Arithmetic Concepts of the Preschool Child
The Arithmetic Teacher 41
Sociodrama as a Teaching Technique
The Social Studies 44
Certificate Requirements for Reading Specialists
The Reading Teacher 47
Understanding Intergroup Relations
NEA Journal 48
How Adequate Are Our Minimum Salaries?
New York State Education 51
With Education in Washington 52
Educational News 56
New Educational Materials 61

OF EDNL. & PSYL. LIBRARY

Volume XXVI March 1961 Number 7

THE EDUCATION DIGEST STAFF

LAWRENCE W. PRAKKEN, Editor and Publisher

JEROME C. PATTERSON, Managing Editor

WARREN R. GOOD, Associate Editor

OLIVER E. HANNINEN, Assistant Editor

BURLEY L. HENDRICKS, Assistant Editor

BARBARA N. LEAKE, Circulation Manager

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

THOMAS D. BAILEY, Superintendent, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

NATT B. BURBANK, Superintendent of Schools, Boulder, Colorado

JOHN S. CARTWRIGHT, Superintendent of Schools, Allentown, Pennsylvania

ARTHUR F. COREY, Executive Secretary, California Teachers Association, Burlingame

LYMAN V. GINGER, Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington

PHILIP J. HICKEY, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis, Missouri

HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, Chief, Elementary Schools Section, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

L. S. MICHAEL, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

FRED RAUBINGER, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey

JAMES E. RUSSELL, Secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.

GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Principal, The Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut

RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington

DONALD E. TOPE, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene

HENRY I. WILLETT, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

MEMBER OF

EDUCATIONAL
PRESS
ASSOCIATION
OF
AMERICA

Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N.Y., Lexington 2-0020. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 818 Waukegan Ave., Glenview, Ill. PArk 4-0800. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 711 S. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1961 by Lawrence W. Prakken

Volume XXVI MARCH 1961 Number 7

No Single Method Insures It

The Nature of Good Teaching

HOLLIS L. CASWELL

In School and Society

WHAT is good teaching? Are there carefully evolved standards for the work of the teacher? Can one readily distinguish between good and poor teaching, and know the reasons why?

Carefully developed answers to these questions will go a long way in helping to clarify positions on educational issues and in aiding one to determine what educational changes he considers desirable.

In the following paragraphs I shall indicate a few of the most important characteristics of good teaching. Each characteristic carries implications for learning, because desirable learning is the goal of teaching and teaching can be tested only in terms of the quality of learning to which it leads.

1. Good teaching is concerned with helping the pupil develop meaning and understanding. There is a great tendency to equate education and command of facts. As a result, teaching often emphasizes memorization of prescribed bodies of knowledge. But modern research has shown that the ability to recite facts is a very different thing from understanding the meaning of those facts and having the ability to apply them to the solution of problems. The "walking encyclopedia" is not a fit ideal for modern education. We could produce a generation of quiz kids and fail to meet our real education needs.

Education that is worthy of the name helps people understand why things are as they are; it enables them to sense the meanings in situations. Reading is not calling off a list of words; it is getting the meaning lying back of the words. Mathematics is not primarily being able to manipulate numbers; it is understanding numerical and spatial relationships and being able to apply mathematical processes to make a situation meaningful and manageable.

Hollis L. Caswell is President, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Reported from School and Society, *LXXXVIII (December 1960), 459–61.*

Teaching that is concerned with meaning and understanding must be close to the pupil; it must build on his own experiences; it must relate to the things he knows and understands. The only way to take a person from the known to the unknown is to start where he is, and good teaching is largely a process of guiding a student from the known to the unknown.

First-hand experience is particularly important in providing an education which develops meaning and understanding. A young child can read with *meaning* a story about his own experiences in coming to school; a story unrelated to his experiences becomes largely word-calling.

INFLUENCING BEHAVIOR

2. Good teaching is concerned with influencing the behavior of pupils. Recently, one of England's and America's greatest philosophers, Alfred North Whitehead, stated the idea, "There is only one subject matter for education, and that is life in all its manifestations."

A great deal of teaching has overlooked this standard. There are many teachers of literature who become so engrossed with seeing that pupils gain certain knowledge about literary selections that they minimize or ignore the effects of their teaching on pupil behavior. The real test of the teaching of literature is to be found in the reading habits students form and continue after the course is over. It is better not to teach literature at all than it is to teach students to hate good literature.

Similarly in other fields, teaching should be directed at changing behavior. In citizenship instruction, the central purpose is to get pupils to behave as good citizens. Much knowledge and many skills are essential to achieving this end. But when the mastery of knowledge and skills becomes an end in itself and behavior is forgotten, the real reason for the support of popular education in our country is subverted.

3. Good teaching is concerned with the student as a person and with his general development. Good teaching is a very personal matter. Review your own experience and recall the teachers who stood out, who made an important contribution to your development. Are they not the ones who took a personal interest in you, who saw your potentialities, who encouraged you to higher aspirations than you alone would have held?

With rare exceptions, the answer to this question will be in the affirmative.

4. Good teaching recognizes individual differences among pupils and adjusts instruction to them. One of the striking facts in a system which provides elementary and secondary education for all the children of all the people is the great diversity of ability which must be considered. The range of potentialities and interest is as wide as the population, and as a consequence, the variability of achieve-

ment in any field is tremendous. In a school system which provides for all, there is no way to eliminate these differences. They must be accepted and adjustments must be made to them.

To make these adjustments is one of the most important elements of good teaching in American schools, for only in this way can equality of opportunity be provided for all our children. This is a standard which we as yet are far from meeting satisfactorily. But significant progress has been made, and one thing is perfectly clear. It is in those situations, where good teachers can work with groups of pupils of such size that they can study each one individually and provide much small-group and individual instruction, that outstanding teaching is being done. Whenever the individual pupil is lost in a mass, this essential quality of good teaching disappears.

CONTENT AND METHOD

5. In good teaching a teacher must be competent in both content and method. One of the most unfortunate aspects of the development of American education has been the tendency to separate content and method, often throwing them in opposition to each other.

The plain fact is that both content and method are essential ingredients of the equipment of a good teacher. It is high time that the two are blended. It would be as sensible to argue which is more important for the preservation of life, air or water, as it is to argue whether content or method is more important in the competence of a teacher.

6. No single method will insure good teaching. There often has been a tendency in American education to tie good teaching to a particular method. At one time the project method was thought to be the answer, the case method has had wide use in certain professional fields, the lecture method has frequently been damned, and the discussion method has been widely emphasized.

Method *per se* is no guarantee of the quality of instruction. All methods, under certain circumstances, will result in good teaching, and under other circumstances, will result in poor teaching. The nature of the subject, the abilities of the teacher, the status of the pupils, and the availability of instructional materials all determine which method gets the best results. Good teaching adapts methods to purpose, content, pupil status, and teacher ability. It permits and encourages the use of a variety of methods. It finds no panacea in any single one.

What is good teaching? This is a basic question. It strikes at the heart of the whole educational process. Answer it clearly, thoughtfully, and soundly, and you will have one good guide through the uncertainties of the future. Ignore it or answer it with catch phrases and clichés and you are certain to be in for confusion. •

"It Shuts Doors for Many Students"

The Tragedy of the Conant Report

James D. Koerner
In Phi Delta Kappan

ONE of the most influential documents in the history of American education was James B. Conant's *The American High School Today.* Probably the most eagerly awaited, most widely distributed, and best known educational report of the century, its distribution has now exceeded a quarter million copies. Therein, as one follows the effects of this book since its publication, lies its tragedy.

It is tragic not because of its findings and recommendations, which are tragic enough, but because of the unquestioning credence given the book by school boards and parents all over the nation and by public-school teachers and administrators. Because of Mr. Conant's immense personal prestige, as well as the publicity campaign that has accompanied his activities, the book represents, in my opinion, a national disaster.

The tragedy lies in the destiny to which Mr. Conant has consigned as much as 85 percent of American youth. While many points in his book need to be refuted, this particular and crucial point is the one to which I would like to address myself.

The fact that struck me in the face, that horrified me, as I read the report was that I had had, almost perfectly, the kind of public education, Mr. Conant says I—and perhaps 85 percent of my fellows—*should* have had. I had his recommended program, almost item for item, in English, "social studies," "vocational education," and all the rest. Only what I had was not education. Neither was it training. Nor was it even "adjustment." It was an unspeakable abomination.

Mine was a large, comprehensive, Midwestern high school of the type revered by Mr. Conant. The overwhelming majority of its students, being from lower-class homes, did not go directly to college, at least not in the thirties, but went into jobs, the armed services or sometimes into a business school. My career there, pretty much that of the majority of its students, would have warmed Mr. Conant's heart.

James D. Koerner is former Executive Secretary of the Council for Basic Education. Reported from Phi Delta Kappan, *XLII (December 1960), 121–4.*

Beginning in the ninth grade, I was "counseled." My counselor fulfilled especially well one of Mr. Conant's prime requirements: "The counselors should be sympathetic to the elective programs which develop marketable skills." My counselor asked me the usual questions, including the silliest one of all, "What do you want to be?"

At the time, I happened to have a little business of my own selling ice cream and candy to the habitués of the trucking-warehouse-slaughterhouse section of the city. My travels took me into everything from plush executive offices to rat-infested alleys. One of the plush offices was occupied by an important, amiable person who always bought my ice cream and told me about his early days of struggle. He was an idol of mine for several months, so that when my counselor asked me my intentions in the world, I said I wanted to be an executive like my friend in the plush office. I was signed up for a course in "Bookkeeping"—in the first half of the ninth grade!—which I promptly flunked, and for one in "Shop." I don't recall whether there was supposed to be a connection between these courses.

By the time of the second semester, I had given up both my idol and my entrepreneurial activities and was working as an usher in a second-string theatre. There was much to be said, I felt, for the kind of life led by the theater owners and exhibitors I began to hear about. When the counselor asked me again what I wanted to be, I said (having learned a new word in my new environment), "I want to be a theater magnate."

Pointing out that I had just flunked bookkeeping, he suggested that maybe I had a practical bent. He signed me up for more "Shop" and for a course in "Practical Science," saying these would be good for me, no matter what. I also took the mandatory courses in English and civics, there being no "Practical English" or "Practical Civics" offered at that time.

COUNSELING CONTINUES

My counseling continued, as Mr. Conant recommends. I abandoned my career in the theater for something that paid more reliably and offered more substantial nourishment than popcorn—I was a bus boy in a downtown hotel. On encountering the inevitable question from my new counselor, I allowed that I wouldn't mind owning a string of hotels. Thereupon, I found myself in a year's course in "Business Training," and one in "Personal Typing."

Before my junior year I had given up on hotels, for one can bus dishes only so long, even with cuisine of unaccustomed excellence. I then became a part-time lifeguard at the downtown YMCA. I have forgotten what I said to my counselor but he felt that since it was obvious I was not for college, I should continue building my electives toward, as Mr. Conant puts it, "a significant sequence of courses . . . leading to the development of a marketable skill." Thus I had "Commercial Geography" and a full course in something called "Merchandising."

MY SENIOR YEAR

My senior year and the war in Europe began at the same time. I decided, like everybody else, that I wanted to be a fighter pilot and that following graduation I would join the Royal Canadian Air Force. My record showed no mathematics whatever and no languages or science worth mentioning—and unpromising grades in everything else except physical education. My senior counselor took a dim view of my RCAF prospects and signed me up for "Salesmanship" and "Commercial Law." As a sop to my irrational ambition, he made room in my program for a new course called "Aviation."

Thus ended my public education. I obviously did not join the RCAF. I took my well-rounded commercial course, my "marketable skill," to market. After considerable searching, I was hired as a stockman in a dime store and after nine months was raised from 25 to 27 cents per hour, whereupon I quit and decided to go to college. I still wanted to be a pilot and two years of college was the standard requirement for admission to the Army Air Force's flying schools. I had no other reason to think about college and no other interest in it.

I sought out a tiny, nonaccredited denominational college that was willing to admit me and provide me with some part-time work. It was at this point that I discovered books.

Although the resources of the school were limited, they brought me into contact for the first time with chemistry, physics, languages, honest-to-goodness history, and, with much gnashing of teeth on my part, some extracurricular elementary mathematics. I liked it all and profited greatly from it all.

After doing enough remedial work, both in college and after enlistment in the Air Force, I passed the requisite examinations, was admitted to flying school, and was graduated therefrom in April 1945.

After separation from the service, I returned at once to college with a true intellectual hunger. In June of 1952 I completed the Ph.D. degree and began a career in teaching.

In all this, my public education was a minus factor of formidable dimension. It was an education which I bitterly regretted almost as soon as I had finished it, and for which I will always pay; and it must stand, I submit, as a disgrace to those "professional educators" in charge of it.

Now, if my experience were unique or even unusual, it would not be worth recording. It is worth recording because my public education was typical of that given countless thousands of American students. It was essentially the kind of education given the majority of my high-school generation, the generation before mine, the generation after mine, and presumably, under the impetus of reports like Mr. Conant's, it is the education that awaits all future generations.

This little tale of mine exhibits specifically the method, and above all, the spirit that has pervaded public education in the United States for nearly half a century and that Mr. Conant now endorses without qualification, thereby insuring its continued dominance.

It is the method and spirit of utilitarianism. It is a pessimistic and hopeless view of man.

DISASTROUS SPIRIT

It is the *spirit* that informs almost every line of Mr. Conant's report that is so disastrous. Nowhere in this extended study is there even a suggestion, not to say an exposition, of the virtues of a liberal education for all or even a large part of American youth. Everywhere are explicit recommendations for exactly the opposite. With the most tiresome redundancy, the point is made that 80 to 85 percent of American students cannot be educated in any important fashion and are not to be put upon by persons, especially parents, who think they can and should be.

The report is replete with stern admonitions to the parents of 80 to 85 percent of American youth to avoid shoving their children into an academic program. Indeed, it is "the duty," says Mr. Conant, "of the counselors to do all they can to defend students against the unreasonable demands of their parents."

I should like to say to Mr. Conant, having been through precisely what he recommends for 80 or 85 percent of American students, that it is a shabby substitute for a free man's education, that it is an unworthy way to prepare for life in the second half of the twentieth century, that it does not prepare anybody for anything—unless perhaps for a mindless and meaningless existence.

I would suggest to Mr. Conant that nobody has the right to assume that *any* student will not go to college. Nobody has the right to assume that, because a student may think he will not go to college, he should not be educated. Nobody has the right to encourage or coerce students into becoming anything less than they might become—and nobody knows, least of all the students themselves, *what* they might become. In short, nobody has the right to shut intellectual doors.

That is the real tragedy of the Conant report. It shuts a great many doors for a great many students. It has given encyclical status to the idea that our public schools can prepare only a few to live an educated life, and must, therefore, prepare everybody else with "marketable skills." If there was ever a way to create an elite, an intellectual aristocracy of the kind Mr. Conant says he hates to the bottom of his soul, this is it. •

Will It Promote Learning?

Educational Technology—Boon or Bane?

JOHN FRITZ

In The School Review

SINCE World War II, hundreds of schools and universities have launched experimental programs in the use of closed-circuit and open-circuit television, motion pictures, filmstrips and slides, tape-recording and language laboratories, and more recently, teaching machines. Reactions to this emerging technology are apparently tending in diametrically opposed directions. In some quarters, there has been a disenchantment with the newer audio-visual media and the disenchantment has been followed by a return to conventional teaching practices. In other quarters, there has been a zealous exploitation of motion pictures and television in programs of instruction that encompass ever greater numbers of students.

Since indications suggest that technology in its various forms will attract increased attention from educators in the years ahead, it is important to examine developments in the educational role of such media as film and television and to assess the likelihood that they will lead to substantial gains in learning and achievement in our schools.

Until recently, audio-visual materials were regarded as "aids" to the teacher. Now that these media can store and disseminate subject matter, they are performing functions that had been the exclusive domain of the teacher. They can illustrate, discuss, and analyze concepts and generalizations and systematically prescribe areas for continued student inquiry. It, therefore, seems inappropriate to categorize these materials under the rubric of supplementary aids. They are better regarded as *complementing* the instructional resources of a school program. In doing so, however, they make it necessary to reformulate the conventional role of the teacher in the classroom. This becomes apparent as the research findings in audio-visual communication are appraised.

A review of available data from research and experimentation in the educational use of film and

John Fritz is an Assistant Professor of Education at the University of Chicago, Illinois. Reported from The School Review, *LXVIII (Autumn 1960), 294–307.*

television reveals results that are inconclusive and, for the most part, disappointing. With monotonous regularity, the literature reports no real differences in learning achievements between experimental classes taught with the newer media and groups taught by conventional methods.

Any consistent tendency in research data among a variety of studies would suggest that a common factor or the same set of variables may be operating to affect the results. At least two such factors may be identified here: teacher function and behavior in the experimental settings, and students' perceptions of the demands in the learning situation. It is important to explore these factors since in all likelihood they will affect any similar attempts to improve educational practice in the future.

The results of audio-visual research remain incomprehensible until it is recognized that, when film instruction is merely added to the existing program of instruction, a duplication of teaching operations may occur. This outcome is particularly likely when films of the Harvey White variety are used regularly in the classroom. These films are not designed to supplement the efforts of the teacher but to perform a large part of the teaching task. As a result, teachers who attempt to use essentially "complementary" film materials as aids to supplement their personal efforts in conventional ways find that their functions may be displaced. A teacher surrogate now performs the lecture-demonstrations and pursues discussions perhaps even more effectively than the teacher. In this connection, one study included the statement that some teachers resented the fact that the film showing left no time in the class period for them to do any "teaching."

REDEFINE ROLES

The core of the problem is not that film instruction occupied more of the class time but that the teachers were now confronted with the need to redefine and reconstruct their roles and functions. Film and television will scarcely affect the productivity of the educational process if they are not accompanied by important changes in what the teaching staff does. Industry would not have achieved present production had the machine been introduced without major changes in the organization and employment of human effort.

A second area that may explain these inconclusive findings lies in the manner in which student motives and perceptions of the learning process affect the student's participation. One must ask, what is the primary concern of the learner as he proceeds through some learning activity? What is he striving to achieve? Disturbing as it may be, high-school and college students generally do not aspire to learn as much as possible but to demonstrate that degree of mastery that will fetch at least a passing grade in a given course. The student is most concerned about graduating.

The basic criterion of learning used in these audio-visual studies is one that predominates in educational practice as a whole—the acquisition and mastery of subject matter. Consequently, given a felt need to show acceptable performance, students attempt to seek out the necessary facts from any source available – books, other students, class notes—apart from the experimental use of television and film. Where several avenues of learning exist, the relative effectiveness of experimental methods in teaching becomes difficult to assess.

A more significant form of adaptive behavior that has an indeterminate effect on learning outcomes is the compensatory effort of students. If the prime motivation of a learner is to receive a desired grade in the course, then it is to be expected that the student will not put forth his best effort to learn but will exert himself only to the extent necessary to assure realization of this private goal. He will continue in his preparation until he can say to himself, "I've got it well enough to pass," or "I know enough to get that B."

DIFFERENCES DO EXIST

In the light of this dynamic in student behavior, the results of audio-visual research acquire new meaning and new significance. Taken at face value, the data would lead one to conclude that one teaching procedure is as effective as another and that the ultimate choice in technique can be determined primarily by considerations of cost and convenience. It i likely, however, that real differences in teaching effectiveness between conventional practices and experimental innovations do exist, but they may have been obscured by differential student effort in the experimental and control groups.

Partial support for this hypothesis is found in the report of one research project where students taught by film and by teacher reported that they did "less textbook reading, less writing up of assignments, less out-of-class studying, more note-taking, and more paying attention in class than did the students in the control schools."

However these research results are explained, the experimental data still serve to guide school policy and decision-making. Current developments in the practical use of such devices as film and television tend to move in opposite directions. Experiments may induce some schools to revert to more conventional teaching practices, while others are encouraged to pursue broad programs extending instruction through the new media.

One can understand the reluctance of administrators and teachers to pursue the complementary use of television and film in instruction. The problem of lowered teacher morale occasioned by the need to regain professional identit in the teaching process, the vagu apprehension, rarely expressed, of technological unemployment, the difficulties of class scheduling and functional student grouping because of centralized origination of instruction, the modification of inadequate school plant, and the additional costs and administrative problems—all serve to underscore a policy decision that the available research data can be made to support.

Decisions to relegate technology to the periphery of educational practice are based on an inadequate concept of the magnitude of the task of the school. Where resources permit, schools should investigate the extent to which the complementary use of technology can reduce the burden of repetitive, routine, and largely descriptive and expository processes in instruction and provide increased occasion for the professional staff to perform more professional functions in the creative application of insights to teaching and learning problems. Educational technology does not threaten to disenfranchise the classroom teacher. Rather, it promises to provide the teacher greater opportunity to perform more creative functions for more sensitively human ends.

Regrettable as divorce from technology may be, the indiscriminate adoption of the machine on an ever larger scale is likewise premature and may present even greater obstacles in the way of educational improvement.

Since results of research in "mass" education by television appear to suggest that schools can expect learning outcomes at least comparable to those derived from present teaching practices, harried administrators and other concerned groups may view the new media as promising devices with which to solve the problems of growing numbers of students, perennial shortage of qualified teachers, and rising educational costs. Some observers have publicly expressed the need for economies in education and have speculated about the gains that can be realized through the increased mechanization of educational practices.

NEED APPRAISAL

However, any contemplated use of television and film to instruct larger student audiences ought to be carefully appraised in view of the impact of possible adaptive behavior of student and teacher in the process. In the main, such exploitation of technology shows little promise in bringing about changes in student behavior that would indicate a socially significant growth in interest and accomplishment.

In the past, large-scale uses of audio-visual media have taken the form of wide dissemination of conventional, lecture-dominated instruction. From all indications, plans for the future promise to do little more. According to recent releases, the Midwest Airborne Television Instruction Experiment will attempt to reach a large body of high-school and college students by televising content in up to 24 subject areas—carefully packaged, systematically organized, and expertly presented. On the basis of results from comparable but less ambitious projects, there is little reason to expect marked increases in the learning of the recipients. Unless the instruction enhances the student's interest in the subject, it will likely do little more than approximate conventionally respectable levels of achievement.

To be sure, a teacher surrogate may succeed in communicating some of his enthusiasm for his subject matter to the viewing student. Unless such enthusiasm is nurtured and reinforced in the local environment, the student may, at best, learn somewhat more in the instructional period only to forget more in the course of time. The gap between concrete educational outcomes and social needs threatens to persist.

The relevance to education of ambitious efforts to exploit television and film is twofold. First, there is a distinct possibility that educators and public alike may grow disenchanted with technology and discount prematurely the potential value of these media as facilitators of instruction.

A second concern lies in the very drama and ostentatiousness of large-scale attempts at educational improvement through television. The impact of experimental projects of conspicuous magnitude may camouflage the need for a reappraisal of fundamental learning objectives and outcomes that guide the selection of teaching methods in instruction.

Unless an innovation in teaching technique specifically provides occasion for student inquiry and generates new perceptions of the place and role of the learner in relation to the subject matter, it is unlikely that it will lead to new heights in learning achievement. Continual preoccupation with the immediate demands in organizing and transmitting instruction in great volume tends to divert attention from other key determinants of learning in the receiving situation.

Hence, despite the application of enormous technical and financial resources, and in some cases because of it, current adaptations of technology to education give but little promise of promoting student learning much beyond the prevailing level of inadequate educational accomplishments. •

A CORPORATION wrote another corporation: "Our electronic brain has computed the cost of the work you want done. It amounts to . . ." The following reply was received: "As the amount quoted is more than we anticipated, we suggest that your electronic brain and our electronic brain make an appointment to go over the figures."—From *Texas Outlook*.

Not Any One Factor Responsible

How the Junior-High School Came to Be

JOHN H. LOUNSBURY
In Educational Leadership

THE movement to reorganize secondary education has come a long way since Charles W. Eliot made the suggestion in 1888. From that date until 1909-1910, the reorganization movement remained at the talking stage. Indianola Junior High School of Columbus, Ohio, opened in September 1909, became the first school specifically called a junior-high school. Today, there are 5,000 junior-high schools. The reorganized schools, that is those that deviate from a four-year high school following an eight-year elementary school, now make up 76 percent of the 24,000 secondary schools and enrol 82 percent of the 11 million secondary pupils.

The movement involving the development of the junior-high school, though already quite successful, is relatively young. Yet the institution's existence is long enough so that the history of the junior-high-school movement can be viewed with reasonable objectivity. Our understanding of the present and our vision for the future are incomplete without a knowledge of how and why the junior-high school came to be.

During the 1920's, the junior-high school and its partners in the reorganization movement were rapidly growing educational innovations. In the 1930's the junior-high school, the senior-high school, and the combination junior-senior high school became accepted members of the American school family. By the close of the 1950's, the separate junior-high school followed by the separate senior-high school, had become the predominant pattern of secondary-school organization in the United States. Together these institutions enrolled 50 percent of the secondary-school population.

John H. Lounsbury is Chairman, Division of Teacher Education, Georgia State College for Women, Milledgeville. Reported from Educational Leadership, *XVIII (December 1960), 145–47, 198.*

The history of the junior-high school parallels the social, economic, and political developments of the half-century which encompasses its life. It was initiated, developed, and grew because a variety of factors, all related to the times and existing educational theory and practice, supported it in one way or another.

Among the factors functioning to aid the growth and development of the junior-high school were: In the 1890's, college officials wanted secondary schools to speed up and improve college preparation; several national committees issued influential reports supporting reorganization proposals in the period 1892 to 1918; educators were seeking a solution to the appallingly high rate of drop-outs and retardations as revealed by the pioneer studies of Ayers, Strayer, and Thorndike; numerous psychologists, including G. Stanley Hall, supported special institutions as being better for coping with adolescents.

MANY FACTORS

The junior-high school did not develop and grow because of any *one* factor; it grew because of many. It grew because educators aspired to practice new understandings of individual differences which the psychologists were clarifying. It grew because the growing masses of immigrants and urban dwellers required an extensive type of citizenship education. And it grew because it provided a partial solution to the school building shortage caused by World War I and again by World War II.

Nor can the credit for the junior-high school be given to any one individual; not to Eliot, not to Thorndike, not to Hall. Many individuals contributed to the development. In some instances, the champions came from different philosophical camps. Public-school leaders were concerned with meeting immediate needs and viewed the junior high as a means, board of education members may have seen reorganization as an economy move, while teachers may have supported reorganization for the new and improved special facilities it would bring.

Over the long haul, however, a dominant factor undergirding the successful development of the junior-high school, has been the desire of educators to provide an appropriate educational program for early adolescence. This desire was both an original impetus and a continuing concern. Without denying the assistance of other factors in the development of the junior-high school, it can be noted that the support of some of these factors has not been sustained.

The movement's first fatality, for instance, was the economy of time, the original reason for reorganization. The drop-out problem, which motivated many early efforts to reorganize, has largely been resolved at the junior-high-school level. The assistance which the junior-high school received from the guidance movement is now given to other schools as well. But the attempt to provide an effective educational program based on the nature of young adolescents remains as the basic theme of the junior-high-school movement.

Junior-high-school growth seems also to have been assisted by many chronological coincidences. The way a variety of developments worked together to the advantage of the reorganization movement is at least a partial explanation for the notable success which the movement has enjoyed.

There is the coincidence of G.

Stanley Hall publishing his volumes on adolescence in 1905. What if he had published his works in 1925? What if the school building shortage caused by World War I had come *before* the series of committee reports dealing with reorganization rather than *after*? What if the drop-out studies had been made in the 1880's rather than in 1907-1911? What if the movement to chart individual differences had come about before any mention of reorganization had been made?

A number of similar questions might be posed, and probably would be equally difficult to answer. They are, perhaps, purely academic, yet they serve to point up how important the chronological convergence of numerous factors was to the growth and development of the junior-high school.

In summary, many factors worked together to cause the inauguration and early success of the crusade to reorganize secondary education. The original impetus for reorganization came from the colleges and was concerned with economy of time and with college preparation. Discussions about reorganization then began to broaden their base and proposals became linked with other school problems, such as the high rate of elimination and retardation. Psychology furnished studies offering further justification. The culture provided fertile soil for the seeds of reorganization whether planted by college presidents, by public-school administrators, by psychologists, or by professional educators. So the movement to reorganize secondary education, coming at a propitious time, prospered.

The junior-high school may not have been all that many hoped it would be. It may never have proved itself on some counts, yet it has achieved marked success in its relatively brief history. Many new educational practices and ideas have been tested in the junior-high school. More experimentation is in the offing, as glimpses of the future are beginning to come into clearer focus. The junior-high-school story is unfinished; its success to date augurs well for the future. •

Junior-High-School Teachers

HE who would teach junior-high-school youth must possess other unique qualities, but suffice it to say that a vital element in the enterprise to insure a square deal for this "awkward-age" pupil is a worthy model for emulation. One frustrated lad was heard to remark, "Two things in life I've had are ample—good advice and bad example." Unfortunately, our youth do get good advice in ladles and good examples in teaspoons.—M. Dale Baughman in *Educational Leadership*.

Three CBE Leaders State Their Beliefs

An Interview with the Council for Basic Education

In School Management

THE Council for Basic Education is one of the most talked about and controversial organizations in the educational field. But a close look at the statements of CBE's friends and enemies indicates that perhaps neither really knows what the organization is all about.

Where does the CBE really stand? Is it really the enemy of the National Education Association and the darling of Admiral Rickover?

Recently, a *School Management* editor interviewed three of CBE's top leaders: Thomas Bledsoe, executive secretary of CBE, a former professor at Illinois University; Mortimer Smith, editor of CBE's monthly bulletin and a former free-lance writer who became interested in education; and Samuel Withers, associate secretary of CBE, who is on leave from his position as a high-school English teacher in Scarsdale, N. Y.

The sole intent of the interview was to gain information and to find out where the CBE stands on major issues in education. The following questions and answers are taken from the transcript of the tape-recorded interview.

Reported from School Management, *IV (December 1960) 26–30, 65.*

Question: Gentlemen, as you see it, is there anything good about education in the public schools of today?

Bledsoe: Certainly. There's a lot that's good. But there's a lot that's bad, too. The Council for Basic Education is not in business to attack the schools—we're in business to improve them. We feel that anybody who says, "Everything is all right in the schools today," is just blind. And yet, an awful lot of people in education seem to think that way. When we point out some of the bad things in education, it is not just for the purpose of pointing a finger. It is for the purpose of getting them improved.

Question: What are some of these bad things that you see? Where would you start?

Bledsoe: I think the best place to start is right in the first grade—with the reading program. This is perhaps the best example of what is wrong with the schools today. During the past 30 years, there has been a shift from the old phonic method of teaching reading to the "look-say" method. The result has been that many, many people graduate from elementary school—and even from high school —without knowing how to read.

Question: Many educators say that this is a fake controversy that you have thought up. They say that the phonic method is being used in the schools and that it is being combined with the newer and more progressive look-say method. Would you agree with this?

Smith: I would say that many of these educators of whom you speak don't always know what is going on in the field of reading instruction. The standard position of the reading experts is that phonic instruction is something that must be delayed. There is a fundamental difference between the use of phonics in an incidental fashion and the systematic use of phonics from the beginning as the basic method for teaching reading.

Withers: Actually, it's impossible to get systematic phonic instruction widely practiced in America's schools today because there's no reading series generally available that is based on anything but the look-say method. To teach phonics a teacher must either construct her own system or persuade the administration to buy one of the many successful supplementary phonics systems. This requires a lot of initiative and additional expense, and still leaves the students reading the limited vocabulary of the look-say readers.

Smith: More emphasis is placed today on "reading readiness" than on teaching. This is part of the life-adjustment business—not forcing a child to read until some tests show he's ready.

Question: You think, then, that all children should be expected to read at exactly the same time—presumably in the first grade?

Bledsoe: Not at all. But the reading-readiness idea has been carried to such an extreme that there are schools where children do not start reading until they're in the third, fourth, or fifth grades. But when a child enters school, the one thing he wants to learn more than anything else is how to read. I think it is very thwarting for him to find that the teacher doesn't think he's ready.

OTHER SUBJECTS

Question: How about some of the other elementary-school subjects? Do we have problems there, too?

Bledsoe: We feel very strongly that history and geography and what used to be called civics have been weakened and watered down by the introduction of the so-called social studies.

Question: Would you want students to go out on field trips?

Smith: I think a great deal of the field trips come under the heading of boondoggling. I certainly would want to be very careful that the field trips really had some relation to the learning process and weren't just extended recess periods.

Question: Would you want to eliminate such things as clerical *programs in the high schools — typing, stenography, home economics, and things like that?*

Smith: My feeling is that these are useful skills, although homemaking, for example, tends to get tremendously out of hand. I don't think they are proper subjects for academic credit. I do not think they should be taught *instead* of academic subjects. If they can be taught in addition to, or in off hours, then they can be useful. But the general tendency in high schools today is to make a course in home economics, for example, equal in credit, and therefore academically equivalent, to a course in English. This doesn't make any sense to us. I think it has become a way of nibbling at and drastically cutting down the academic content of the curriculum.

Withers: I wouldn't go quite so far as you've gone. I would give perhaps a half credit to courses like this—assume that they are secondary. I think we ought to make a distinction, too, on tracks. If you have a school large enough to have a four-track system, these courses could have more weight in the fourth track than in the other three.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Question: These courses that we have been discussing really fall somewhere between the academic and the truly vocational courses. Where does vocational education fit in the schools?

Bledsoe: It really doesn't. Vocational education is very expensive education. When you start equipping machine shops you're getting into money. Furthermore, we doubt the real value of vocational education. A student who learns to run a tractor, because his school is in an agricultural area, is not going to find much use for this skill if he moves to the big city. On the other hand, if he learns to read and to write and to reason, he can use these skills no matter what part of the country he lives in.

Smith: Another objection to vocational education is that a lot of it, of necessity, tends to be out of date. If you equip shops in a society that changes technologically as rapidly as we do, it's hard to keep up with the times.

Question: A great number of these vocational programs are used to hold on to students who otherwise would leave the schools. Isn't this important?

Bledsoe: This is an awfully pessimistic attitude. I don't think there are so many students who are not salvageable so far as education is concerned.

Question: This is an attempt to salvage them, is it not?

Bledsoe: Not educationally. This is an attempt to interest them in something that has no real relation to education. I'm not sure that we can afford to give up so easily, especially at the present time. I think the Council for Basic Education would certainly feel as strongly as any organization in the country that we ought to make the attempt to really educate, genuinely educate, far more than we are attempting to do now.

Smith: The boys that you shuffle off to machine shop, because you decide you've got to keep them in school and you can't teach them anything, are our future voters and and citizens. If we give up on them at this stage in their learning, we've also given up on them implicitly in the second stage.

Question: Did the type of education you favor ever exist in the United States?

Smith: Not for the whole population.

Question: Did it ever exist at all?

Smith: I would be hard put to substantiate this, but I suspect there was some period, perhaps about 1915, when the public schools in this country more nearly approximated what we are after. There existed then a combination of traditional education with the best of the early progressive. Certainly the whole life-adjustment movement hadn't arisen at that period. The public schools were, I think, more committed in those days to the intellectual training that we're talking about.

Bledsoe: True. But, on the other hand, if overnight you could introduce the schools of 1915 in 1960, you would have no solution to the educational problems of our present time.

Question: Aren't the very same people who were brought up in these schools of 1915 the ones who are leading today's schools? Isn't the product of this education of 1915 providing the leadership that you oppose today?

Bledsoe: Basic education, thank God, is no guarantee that people are going to come out thinking the same thing. But really, I deplore this comparison with 1915 because I think it is irrelevant. This is especially so because one of the stock criticisms of what we're trying to say is "They want to go back to the good old days."

There never were any good old days in the terms that we're talking about. What we need is a good new day in which we will try to really give adequate intellectual training to 80 or 85 percent of the students. This demands a lot of work and experimentation. And it means teaching things that we ought to be really working on and that most schools aren't. •

It's Ketching

AN English teacher tacked on her bulletin board a clipping torn from a professional journal which stated, "Only one in 100 high-school students can write a five-minute theme without making a mistake in spelling or grammar." Underneath it she wrote: "Class, if I keep on grading papers with 'prowd' and 'appretiate' in them the rest of this semester, I'm soon knot goen two be abl to spel iether."—From *Mississippi Educational Advance.*

No Simple Solution to a Complex Problem

Grouping Practices

CELIA B. STENDLER

In Those First School Years

FOR educators, the decade of the fifties will stand out as that span of time which saw a greater ferment in education than any previous decade, except perhaps for the thirties when the progressive education movement was most virile.

The elementary school, instead of being primarily concerned with curriculum reform, as has the secondary school, has largely concerned itself with organizational changes designed to group children more efficiently for individual differences. These include some plans in vogue years ago and later rejected, and some that are genuinely new and different. Here we will be largely concerned with three widely discussed plans for grouping pupils.

The graded elementary school with selfcontained classrooms, mixed in ability and for the most part homogeneous in age, has been until fairly recently the most prevalent pattern of organization. Certain portions of the elementary curriculum were assigned to each grade and a pupil was expected to complete that portion before moving on to the next.

Defects in this concept of grade standards became obvious. Fast learners could complete the work of the grade in much less than a year's time, while slow learners required more time. Retarding all pupils who could not meet the grade-level standard had such deleterious effects that many schools practiced "social" promotion.

At the same time, more teachers began to accept the philosophy that within limits the curriculum ought to be adjusted to children, not children to the curriculum. It was increasingly recognized that since pupils of the same chronological age assigned to the same grade vary so in intellectual ability, standards for a particular age group ought to vary accordingly.

Grouping within the class on the basis of ability has become the prevalent practice, at least in the

Celia B. Stendler is Professor of Education, Elementary Education Division, University of Illinois, Urbana. Reported from Those First School Years, *1960 Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, 147–65* primary grades and at least for reading instruction. Some primary teachers report three reading groups and some, four. A few second- and third-grade teachers have two groups for arithmetic, although often temporarily. Still fewer have two groups for spelling.

There is a decrease in ability grouping in the intermediate grades. Two groups for reading replace the three or four at the primary level. By the seventh and eighth grades, grouping is the exception rather than the rule.

HOW DOES IT WORK?

How does mixed-ability grouping work? Unfortunately, studies in the area of classroom organization have been limited in scope. They have concentrated on only one aspect of the development of the child at a time—usually his achievement—and so a comprehensive evaluation is lacking.

We mention in passing the following observations: Mixed ability grouping works best when the philosophy of the entire school favors adjusting the program to the child, and when most of the pupils are able to achieve sufficient competency in reading by the end of grade 3. Teachers with a wide spread of ability in a classroom no longer appear reluctant to use easier-than-grade materials for slow learners, but are still reluctant to provide instruction and materials sufficiently advanced for fast learners. Teachers differ with respect to the number of groups they can comfortably manage. Ability groups within the classroom are most prevalent in the primary grades, gradually disappearing as children progress through the elementary grades, where more attention to individual differences actually is needed. And grouping pupils for instruction within the classroom means that pupils must spend considerable time working independently. All too often, this time is wasted in activities designed to keep children busy and quiet.

NONGRADED ORGANIZATION

Perhaps the most publicized and the fastest spreading of the newer approaches to organization is the nongraded elementary school. It has so far been largely confined to the primary unit.

The ungraded organization attempts to facilitate a plan for continuous growth during the child's beginning school years. It is designed to eliminate retardation in the primary grades by organizing the first three years according to reading levels. Each of these years is given a new name: beginning primary, intermediate primary, upper primary. Certain reading levels are assigned to each classroom and to each year of the primary. Within each classroom, the teacher groups for instruction according to the levels assigned to him. At the end of the school year, all pupils progress to another classroom. Most of the pupils complete the work of the primary unit in three years and are promoted to fourth grade.

About two percent take only two years and about the same number require four years, but each year they make continuous progress to the next highest level. The slowest learner may not even complete six levels (second reader) by the end of four years; however, he is sent to the fourth grade to avoid overage children in the elementary school.

To date, efforts to evaluate the ungraded organization plan again have been plagued by the fact that research has been limited to answering one question at a time, rather than to examining the impact on *all* aspects of child development.

It *has* been determined that teachers like the ungraded plan. But teachers have always hated to retard pupils. Under this plan teachers, parents, and pupils have three years rather than one to accept the fact that the pupil will take four years to do the work normally accomplished in three. It is argued that there is less damage to the selfconcept of the slow learner under such a plan than where pupils spend two years in the same grade.

While research is urgently needed on many problems of the ungraded plan of organization, there is evidence available now on a few points, such as:

The practice of putting enough faith in results of standardized tests at grade 1 level to justify their use for placement purposes is extremely questionable. Then, too, the nongraded plan has substituted level standards for grade standards. It is based on ability grouping. Like other organizational patterns based on ability grouping, the ungraded plan tends to penalize lower-class children who may be bright but not as verbal as their middle-class peers. The effect of errors of placement on the self-concept of children needs to be examined. Does a potentially bright child have an unrealistically low opinion of his ability as a result of being placed in a slower group?

Notable, also, is that the ungraded plan, widely advocated as a means of providing for individual differences, is largely confined to the primary years. Yet it is precisely the primary teacher who pays the most attention to individual differences and the intermediate teacher who pays the least. This writer would not advocate the extension of the plan into the intermediate years, but would, instead, argue for experimentation and research on more adequate techniques for meeting individual differences in older children.

DEPARTMENTALIZATION

Another method of organization that has been growing in response to increased emphasis on subject matter is the pattern of departmentalization. In the selfcontained classroom, the same teacher instructs in all academic subjects; with departmentalization, the pupils or teachers move from classroom to classroom. In recent years more elementary schools have adopted this practice above the third grade.

There have been a number of arguments advanced against departmentalization in the elementary school, excluding the special subjects such as art, music, and physical education. Where one teacher has control of children for most of the day, more careful guidance of individual pupils is possible. A teacher in a departmentalized program may have more than 100 children to teach each day. It is difficult for him to have more than a cursory acquaintance with an individual child. Since the early years are the formative ones, it is important that a teacher have enough time each day with a pupil to know him and his problems thoroughly. It is also possible in the selfcontained classroom to make sure that concepts acquired in one subject are reinforced in others when opportunity and appropriate conditions are present.

While it is important that teachers know well the subject matter, the scope and depth of the elementary-school curriculum are not so great that classroom teachers cannot teach all major academic areas competently. While the goal of adequate preparation is far from realization, teacher-training programs are emphasizing more than ever a thorough grounding in the academic subjects.

DUAL-PROGRESS PLAN

It is common knowledge that pupils vary in their abilities. To provide for intra-individual variability, a dual-progress plan of organization is now being tried in selected eastern schools. The dual-progress plan divides the day for children above the third grade into two parts: graded and ungraded. Pupils spend the graded half of the day with a core teacher who teaches social studies and the language arts. The ungraded part of the day is spent with subject matter specialists. Assignment to the ungraded portion depends not on age or grade but on aptitudes, interests, and achievements. For example, a 10-year-old boy with special ability in arithmetic might spend the morning in a regular fifth-grade class. But half the afternoon might be spent with the same teacher in advanced arithmetic and science classes made up of nine-to-twelve-year-olds; the other half, in an advanced foreign-language class and perhaps a low-level music and art class.

The dual-progress plan has the distinct advantage of providing opportunities for able pupils to do advanced work in special fields, while at the same time insuring that they will have enough time with one teacher so that an individual is not lost in the shuffle of classes. Its shortcomings may be revealed and corrected as programs are evaluated. It may be that the third grade is too early to start such a plan; too many errors in assessing pupils' abilities may be made at this level. It will be interesting to note, too, the impact of slow and fast learners on each other in the ungraded classes.

NO MAGIC FORMULA

In considering all these plans of organization, principals ought to beware of any interclass grouping plan as the too-simple solution to the complex problem of attending to individual differences. There is no magic formula, no giant computer, no administrative device that can section a grade of children so as to assure that every pupil will receive instruction suited to his educational level. Only good teachers can do this—only teachers who see pupils not as third graders, but as 30 children with varying capacities and needs. No administrative device can compensate for poor teaching.

With the present intense and needed emphasis on content in the elementary school, there is danger that, in the tradition of going to extremes, we will throw out what we know about the psychology of learning. In fact, even now phrases like "the whole child," "mental hygiene," and "acceptance of pupils" are being held up to ridicule by the hard-boiled who see the solution to all educational ills in the provision of a stimulating intellectual environment. Such an environment should be the fundamental right of every child, but it is not easy to predict the effects of a particular environment, stimulating though it may be, on a child. The "whole child" still comes to school, bringing with him his motivational structure.

FLEXIBILITY NEEDED

In order to provide an optimum instructional program, principals should facilitate an organization that will make use of the special abilities and training of individual teachers but without the compulsion to institutionalize such an organization. What is good for a particular fifth grade is not necessarily good for all grades, nor even for all fifth grades in a school system. The more flexible the organization of the elementary school, the more creatively teaching talent can be used. Creative administrators ought to conduct teacher inventories in order to ferret out special talents, and they ought to devise a plan to put that talent to use, without feeling that all schools in the system, regardless of their special needs, should adopt the same plan.

One of the great dangers facing the schools of the future is that of regimentation by administrative organization. Any of the plans discussed here might have some merit in a limited way. It is only when a blanket application is made that the defects are glaring.

Let us set up grouping procedures in the elementary schools so that there is plenty of room for teacher and pupils to move about; grouping procedures that will not view the child as "Upper Level Primary, Accelerated Group, Gifted," but as Jerry Jones, Human Being. •

Two Incorrect Assumptions on

Terminal Education

W. LINWOOD CHASE

In Second Thoughts on Terminal Education

TERMINAL education is a problem of educational urgency. It demands attention because it needs exhaustive planning by educational authorities. It demands attention because parents must recognize its significance in the educational programs of their children. It demands attention because youth must understand the different paths available for job training and because there is a lack of sensitivity to the breadth of its characteristics and the importance of its objectives.

There are two frequently occurring incorrect assumptions concerning terminal education: one, all education of the individual ceases on a low rung of the ladder; two, classification in a group whose formal education is smaller in amount than others means being not quite respectable.

These assumptions are incorrect because education does not cease on leaving a formal school organization; and, of course, life can be successful and command the highest respect even if one does not go to college.

Organized education may be over for the school-leaver at any point before attainment of the baccalaureate degree. Presumably, any type of education in which the planned program falls short of a four-year college degree is apt to be considered as terminal education.

W. Linwood Chase is former Dean, School of Education, Boston University, Mass. Reported from Second Thoughts on Terminal Education, *published by the Massachusetts Council for Public Schools, Inc. (1960), 1–2.*

A young man I know completed high school doing well in those subjects he liked and barely getting by in those he did not like. Carrying the same attitudes into college, he ended his freshman year on probation. He did not return to college. He enlisted in the Air Corps. The wise father of this boy later wrote to his son on his after-service plans: "I don't know what kind of work you have decided to do when you come out of the service, but I hope, whatever it is, you will take a school program to prepare you for it, whether that program is six months, or a year, or longer."

This father was talking about terminal education—a formal education program which prepares a young man for a job. He realized that a four-year college is not the only program of education beyond the high school. There are schools which provide terminal education programs ranging from instruction in barbering to certain skills needed in the electronics industry, or from many other kinds of specialized skills, to liberal arts or business education in the junior college.

That one-third to one-half of those who enter high school do not graduate indicates how far we are falling short of the American dream of a secondary-school education for all youth. Those who do not graduate extend through the whole range of mental ability, from low to high.

Those who leave the high school early can hardly expect that the high school has served as a terminal education agency. It has not been given the opportunity. High-school education can be considered a package deal. You have to take the whole package if you expect to get much benefit from it. On the other hand, the high school must frequently examine the contents of the package to see that the ingredients are what is required by the individual.

What *is* required? The fundamental purpose of a high school is to provide educational opportunities for every student able to benefit by them. The importance of developing attitudes, understandings, and skills common to all citizens of our democracy has long been recognized. The trend is to make secondary-school education function more efficiently in these phases of learning. It must continue that way. One cannot say that all school-leavers quit school because the school fails to provide for their needs. One can say that a smaller number would quit school if there had been more concern for their needs.

Any discussion of meeting the needs of individuals must include a consideration of the needs of the society in which they live. Therefore, schools must have goals in citizenship education and yet must so handle the needs of the individual that he does not quit school. Although he may not always realize it, the individual's needs aren't served unless he develops the general qualifications to be successful as a worker in the world when school days are over.

Speaking at a conference on secondary education, Mr. Kennerly Woody of the New York Telephone Company, classified business jobs into three groups: There are craft jobs such as stenographers, bookkeepers, lathe operators, and people who work on electrical assemblies; there are technical jobs for those who do the research and planning—the skilled engineers, the experts on design, the specialists; and a third group consisting of administrators who chart the course of business and see that its affairs are conducted wisely and well.

High-school graduates can work effectively in the craft jobs. If they have ability and drive, they can progress to higher level positions and opportunities. In these craft jobs they can be happy and can raise happy families.

It is the ambitious parents who

sometimes attempt to force their children into higher education beyond their capacities and their interests. High-school principals and guidance counselors constantly report the unwillingness of some parents to recognize that their children are not four-year college material. Parents sometimes choose schools not on the basis of their children's abilities and aptitudes, but rather of the school's social prestige. Principals and guidance counselors are in a position to give helpful advice about a desirable terminal education program for high-school students. Quite frequently, they are in a better position to give such advice, for they are more objective and less emotional than are the parents.

Terminal education, which for any individual may be determined by desire, interest, or circumstances, should have within it that spark which starts the fire of self-direction in education beyond the high school. It is this spark that will make better citizens and better workers. •

Continuing Education and Guidance

ONCE a young person has left school, no one is officially concerned with his educational or vocational future. It is not usually regarded as a responsibility of the school. But it should be. We should not simply turn these boys and girls out on the streets. They need advice . . . They need to be helped to think constructively about their own abilities and limitations, about job opportunities and about their further learning and growth . . . The young people who go out into the world after high school—and even more urgently, those who drop out before graduation from high school—should be helped in order to assure that the years immediately ahead will be years of continued self-development.

To be specific, every high school in the land should provide *continuing* vocational and educational counseling for all who leave school short of college. These services should be available until the boy or girl reaches the age of 21 . . .

It may be objected that such a service would be expensive. It would be an added expense to the schools, but not necessarily to society as a whole. Young people who fail to get jobs or who become juvenile delinquents are a costly burden on the whole community; and every boy or girl whose abilities are not developed is a loss to society. It is better to spend money preventing such outcomes than to spend it later picking up the pieces.—*John W. Gardner*, president of Carnegie Corporation of New York.

Adult Pressure

Can Injure Growth

The Dangers of Social Adjustment

ROBERT W. WHITE

In Teachers College Record

ABOUT 10 years ago, a certain child-guidance clinic hired an efficiency expert to devise ways of saving staff time. After studying one hundred printed forms used for case records, the expert prepared a new form and offered it for comments at a staff conference. Immediately there was a chorus of expostulation. After the heading, "Patient's Mother," the following sentence was set in type:

"The mother, outwardly nervous and over-protective, was inwardly a cold, rejective person."

"It was in every one of the records," the expert declared. "Every one! And it will save 9.3 staff hours a year if you don't have to write it each time."

Another chorus of protest rose at another place on the form. Under the heading, "Recommendations," the expert had caused to be printed: "The child should be made to have frequent social contacts with other children in order to achieve social adjustment."

This was 10 years ago. Is it the same today? Would the efficiency expert find the same stereotypes, the same regnant images of maternal rejection and social isolation? Not entirely, for excesses in one direction tend to breed reactions in the opposite direction.

Since 1950, a number of professional voices have been raised in behalf of the clinical mother. She is no longer the automatic scapegoat for whatever is wrong with the child. During the same period there have been clear sounds of misgivings about social participation.

It is the second point that provides our theme. What dangers lie in heavy repeated doses of social participation? Is there a risk of harmful side effects in the attempt to produce social adjustment?

Professional workers may have had second thoughts about social participation, but it takes time to undo the effects of a doctrine that has been proclaimed as scientific truth. The earlier teaching has intimidated mothers and teachers, leading them to take anxious steps

Robert W. White is Chairman of the Department of Social Relations, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. Reported from Teachers College Record, *LXII (January 1961)*, 288–97.

designed to ensure participation, steps which may have just about the opposite of the intended effect. Can we expect a parent who is anxious about his child's social adjustment to produce anything but an anxious social adjustment in the child?

The ideal of social adjustment is in the broadest sense an educational ideal. All ideals of this kind become subject to misuse. With regard to social adjustment, we are perhaps in a stage that has often been occupied and then outgrown by earlier educational ideals. It is the stage of being overcommitted to one goal, of being nervous about achieving it, of feeling sure that the child will never develop properly unless we force him to behave as he should.

WHY THE ANXIETY?

There can be little doubt that anxieties about social adjustment are widespread. Why these anxieties? Why did it happen that, particularly during the forties and fifties, social skill and enjoyment emerged supreme virtues that must be inculcated at all costs? This result was produced by a convergence of several influences.

We have become aware of profound changes in our economic and social system. As industry assumes more and more the pattern of a large organization, and the small independent business unit ceases to be typical, success and advancement come to depend heavily on qualities of a social sort.

In short, we live in a time when economic success can less and less be distinguished from social success. How can one's offspring get on in the world if he plays by himself, if he does not start right away to develop a marketable personality and to win top grades as an "organization child"?

We also live in a time when we have learned to perceive human relations as the crux of some of our most serious problems. Social experience on the part of children is seen by many parents and teachers as a crucial step on the way to enlightened attitudes toward problems of class, race, and national rivalries.

It is clear, then, that strong social forces have accented the value we attach to becoming a social person. It is no wonder that we became obsessed about social adjustment. I think we greatly exaggerated its significance, but I do not mean by this to challenge its importance.

Our problem, then, cannot be solved by denying that social interaction is a good thing for children. But we do need to calm our anxiety on the subject so we can stop pushing and harassing our children and thus spoiling the natural growth of their social interests.

What does one want to have happen in a child under the heading of social growth? We should not be content with the growth of mere social skills and techniques, with the ability to chatter at a tea, smile cordially at a cocktail party, and issue appropriate flattery when entertaining an important person. The various forms of social competence should not be confused with the more profound goals of social growth.

What we really want is that children should become interested in each other. We want them to enjoy being with others, to take pleasure in companionship. And we want them to appreciate the happiness that comes from sharing activities with other members of a group.

Our goal, then, is the fullest possible development of the child's social interest. We must not fail to recognize the obstacles to such growth. Children have aggressive feelings, too, and they are subject to anxiety. If their contacts provoke aggressiveness and fear, there will be little chance for friendly interest and affection to achieve natural growth. These are the liabilities, and we must bear them in mind as we consider what is possible for adults to do to encourage social growth.

RESULTS OF PRESSURE

Consider first what is likely to happen as a consequence of adult pressure. When we push children into social situations without waiting for the help of their own spontaneous urges, we seriously stack the cards against their having a happy experience. We evoke their general dislike of being pushed; we are likely to push them into groups where aggression is not under control; and we override whatever anxieties they may experience.

The net result is a massive invitation to develop defenses against social participation. The child learns to be present in body but not in spirit, just as he did in the old-fashioned disciplinary school. In short, adult pressure is all too likely to teach the child to become a lonely member of a lonely crowd.

Another likely consequence of pressure is a disregard for the natural rate of social growth. Social virtuosity is expected from the start. But social growth is a slow process involving both maturation and cumulative learning. As development goes forward, a significant function of the child's social life is to provide an alternative society to that of his home, a foil against his parents, a means of developing independence and selfrespect. The last thing children want is for the parents to be enthusiastic about a friendship and to suggest ways of increasing the contacts.

SOCIAL GROWTH

It is worth remembering that social growth does not take place exclusively in social situations; much of it occurs necessarily in imagination. Our panic about autism has caused us to overlook the forward-looking, planful, realistic qualities that are so abundantly present in imaginative play. We tend to think that fantasy will be merely wish-fulfilling, not fitting a person for contact with reality. But this is not what we find when we make any study of fantasy. We find the child imagining things he would like to do, which very probably he will do a little later, and we find him quite capable of telling the difference between a probable and improbable fantasy. Most accomplishments occur first in fantasy; the child's social accomplishments are not an exception to this rule.

Another sphere of social growth is reading. It would be a valuable exercise for all of us if we could remember the origins of our best social insights, our best pieces of social learning, and then see how many of them came from books and how many from social interactions. I think the books would not come off too badly, for many of them are about social realities and vital social relationships even when cast in the form of fiction. Our real social experience, especially the amount we have had by the time of our early twenties, might leave us quite provincial in outlook and quite limited as to depth if we could not amplify it by the social experience of the race, vivified for us in good literature. We must beware of measuring social growth by an external yardstick.

Finally, we ought to recognize that social growth is promoted by having strong interests, not necessarily social in character, which can be shared with those similarly interested. Common interest gives substance to relationships, something to share beside pleasant smiles; it gives those flashes of mutual appreciation which form the real high spots of social growth.

If we are committed to the proposition that the growth of social interest is what we really want, then we are equally committed to the goal of having people be as interesting as possible. I believe we often do more to enrich social living by encouraging children to develop the kinds of interests that must first grow in solitude than by urging them to diffuse their energies through a multitude of social contacts. No one is better fitted than an interesting person to awaken social interest.

I believe it is time to forget the pat formula of social adjustment with which we have been obsessed. It is time to realize that economic and social trends and psychiatric insights have intimidated us and robbed us of common sense about social growth.

There is great natural strength in the child's urge to find opportunities for friendly and rewarding human relations. Unless social development goes very badly, we can have faith that the child's urge will prevail in its own way and at its own time. We can be most helpful if we do not jump in and spoil the process by trying to hasten it and seizing the initiative from the child. In an age when so much rapid and dramatic engineering is done, it is hard to be a husbandman who waits for things to grow. But social growth cannot be engineered. It can happen only through growth. •

Pass or Fail in the Elementary Schools

A Study of Promotion Policy

STUART E. DEAN

In The Elementary School Journal

AMONG the many criticisms leveled at the elementary school today is the charge that it is devoid of intellectual standards for children; that it operates without the conviction that pupils should show evidence of academic progress; and that it has drifted into a soft pedagogy that allows youngsters to move along from grade to grade on the basis of a nebulous doctrine of social promotion.

The whole problem of promoting pupils from one grade to another calls for a look at the graded type of elementary-school organization. We have long had a series of levels known and accepted as grades. The rationale for grades as well as their origin is clear if we recall that they were once considered essential administrative machinery.

Lately, however, many educators have come to entertain doubts about grades, and they find that their suspicions are supported by a growing body of knowledge about children and how they learn. Some educators have predicted that we may soon be moving into an era in which we realize that the structural pattern of a school exists to serve children. In time, these educators say, we may eventually depart from practices that have made children the victims of administrative expediency. Increasingly, some school administrators and teachers are coming to believe that restrictions imposed by a graded system have been harmful and that steps must be taken to remove imposed barriers or grades.

However, as long as the graded system exists in its present form, official recognition of pupil progress takes the form of advancement from one grade to another. To apply this type of procedure, certain policies and judgments have been formulated. Some critics are suggesting that these policies have been evolved without full consideration of the intellectual responsibilities of the school.

What are current practices in pupil promotion in our elementary schools? Are the critics right? Are we shutting our eyes to standards? Do children move from grade to grade simply on the basis of ethereal dogmas? Are we shortchanging our youngsters educationally?

To answer these questions—and many others—the U. S. Office of Education recently made a survey

Stuart E. Dean is Specialist for Elementary - School Organization and Administration, U. S. Office of Education. Reported from The Elementary School Journal, *LXVI (November 1960), 86–90.*

of practices, policies, and trends in the administration of public elementary schools.

The Office of Education undertook this research for two purposes: first, to provide current information that local communities could use in the solution of their school problems; and second, to provide information for the improvement of preservice and in-service programs in the preparation of elementary-school principals.

What picture does the survey present of pupil-promotional policies in the elementary schools? In general, practices reported fall into two broad categories: promotion based entirely on academic progress and promotion that entirely ignores academic progress. In the study, the term *group progress* was adopted to describe the latter approach, although the term *social promotion* is commonly used.

Results of the survey revealed that promotion on the basis of academic factors is the preponderant national pattern. Only a small segment of our schools reported that their promotion practices were based on the so-called social factor. Actually, about 70 percent of the urban places reported that promotion was based on academic consideration, while less than 12 percent reported group progress as a basis for promotion.

The study was designed to permit analyses by region as well as by population group. The results show that all population groups and all regions, with the exception of the largest cities, reflect the preponderant national pattern of promotion policies based on academic progress. In other words, this policy is almost standard throughout the country, irrespective of the size of urban place or the geographic location.

For the nation as a whole, only 11.7 percent of urban places indicated that group progress is the basis for elementary-school pupil promotion (10.8 percent primarily and 0.9 percent exclusively). With less than 1 percent of the urban places reporting that the "social promotion" principle was the *decisive* factor, it seems that the evidence established by the survey seriously challenges the charge that public elementary schools are unmindful of academic responsibilities in the promotion of pupils. •

FAILING a student is only justified as a means to improved learning for the student. The decision should be made only under a guidance-promotion policy, with all facts about the individual thoroughly appraised. To one child, failure might be damaging; to another child, it might be a challenge. The decision to fail a child becomes a major professional responsibility akin to the decision of a surgeon to perform an operation.—*Stanley E. Dimond*, University of Michigan.

Four Emerging Trends

New Developments in Secondary-School Science

MARGARET J. MCKIBBEN

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals

THE time is right for change in our high-school science programs. And change there is today—more than that brought about by two world wars or a depression. It is important to know that a change is in order. It is perhaps more important to know *what* change.

In spite of the large number of "crash" programs, many of the recent developments are the result of carefully considered youth-school-community studies. A recent study of these developments reveals four emerging trends.

1. An increase in ability grouping.
2. Programs being extended outside normal school hours through evening, Saturday, and summer programs.
3. Greater use of nonschool personnel and facilities for teaching purposes.
4. An academic strengthening and modernizing of high-school science courses.

Margaret J. McKibben is Assistant Executive Secretary for Special Projects, National Science Teachers Association, Washington, D. C. Reported from The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, *XLIV (December 1960), 148–64.*

In the matter of homogeneous grouping, three- and even five-track programs are not uncommon. In one of the common three-track patterns, seventh-grade general science is not divided into low and high groups. In the eighth grade, however, students of above average ability (Track I) complete much of eighth- and ninth-grade general science in one year; they are then ready for biology in the ninth grade. Track II ninth-grade general science may differ from Track III general science in study units of greater depth and in having more individual and group laboratory work.

Students in Track I then complete chemistry in the tenth grade, physics in the eleventh grade, and are free to take an advanced course in the twelfth grade. Track II students may enrol for biology in the tenth grade, followed in the eleventh by regular or applied chemistry or physics or physical science. Track III students, lacking the ability to profit greatly from academic science courses, will probably take a physical science course in the eleventh or twelfth grade to complete their science training.

Homogeneous grouping places a burden of student identification on school administrators, guidance personnel, science supervisors, and curriculum specialists as well as science teachers. Differentiated programs must be scheduled, students tested and interviewed, and records kept. But results of learning studies are in favor of grouping, and most of those concerned with such programs agree that the results obtained are worth the effort.

EXTENDING THE SCHOOL DAY

The practice of extending the school day beyond normal school hours is becoming increasingly popular to multiply the effect of the science program. Many, though not all, of the extended programs, are for those of greater than average ability and motivation in science. Some emphasize field trips; some emphasize projects, visiting lecturers, or some other type of activity. Some provide credit toward graduation, while others are noncredit courses.

The summer programs in science most frequently are for senior-high-school students and the methods of operating the programs vary greatly. One large city system established a summer science program for all public, private, and parochial school students, grades 7-12. Three centers were established and 180 students were selected. Three teachers and 60 students were assigned to each center and divided into biology, chemistry, and physics sections.

Three types of activities were included in the program: projects, seminars, and field trips. Some of the projects were carried on under the supervision of university and industrial scientists. In many cases, students entered the program with projects already underway. Others came with little more than a general interest in science and a keen desire to know more about all aspects of it. The function of the faculties at the centers was to provide specific help in completing the projects and in developing interest in some specific area for those with only a general interest.

Another example is a summer mathematics-science program for students in the eleventh and twelfth grades which provided students with an opportunity to have work-experience in industry, to undertake a mathematics-science project of considerable difficulty, to use university library facilities, and to receive additional training in areas commonly found in scholarship testing.

In some schools, a shorter summer period may be used to prepare students for advanced science courses. In one program, eighth-grade students selected for ninth-grade biology were given a two-weeks preparatory course in basic biology, chemistry, and physics. In another, a summer physical-science program covering ninth-grade general science is given to those who will be accelerated in ninth-grade biology.

The extended programs taking place on Saturdays or before and after school also are conducted in a variety of ways. One well-established Saturday science program has 50 boys and girls, grades 8-12 enrolled. Sessions are informal —usually a lecture with films, slides, or demonstrations. Taking advantage of the nearby ocean and several marine laboratories, the program is slanted toward biology.

Another Saturday program, which is a voluntary one for students, is held Saturday mornings, one Saturday a month for 10 months. Students attend because of their interest in supplementing the regular high-school science programs and do not receive academic credit. The first part of each period is devoted to lectures by college and university staff members; the second portion to student laboratory experimentation.

Extending the school day to before-school or after-school hours involves administrative difficulties. Schedules for both teachers and students must be adjusted, teachers must be compensated, and there are other complications. Nevertheless, there are schools operating programs from 7:00 to 7:50 in the mornings, or from 3:30 to 5:30 in the afternoons. Such programming does make for better use of existing school facilities and does tend to strengthen the science curriculum.

Another striking development in high-school science instruction is the increased number of schools making use of nonschool personnel and facilities. Several patterns have been followed.

NONSCHOOL PERSONNEL USE

In one community, a council of representatives of professional and technical societies and the local board of education was founded. This organization developed a school-consultant service, a career-night program, a science fair, a newsletter to keep teachers informed of science activities of interest to them, and visual aids for classroom use.

The consultant service provides each high school with the services of two scientists. The consultants cooperate with school personnel in such ways as developing a list of science scholarships, planning plant tours, screening and distributing career-guidance booklets, evaluating and purchasing films for school use, and arranging for speakers.

The career-night programs usually take the form of a panel of speakers describing requirements and opportunities in engineering and scientific fields. The annual science fair for students in grades 7-12 at a local state teachers college is sponsored jointly by the local science teachers association and the council. It provides technical information for those judging and viewing the exhibits and science tours for award winners.

Other methods of making use of nonschool personnel include resource committees drawn from college and university science departments who assist in career guidance, advise about laboratory projects, assist in securing unusual scientific equipment, and provide special lectures.

Summer research-employment opportunities for students provide another means for expanding high-school science programs. The number of government, industry, and university laboratories offering such opportunities is increasing.

The developments in course content in the newer secondary-science courses have been receiving much publicity recently. The newer course content differs from that of the traditional courses in three general respects: It is more difficult at all ability levels, there is greater emphasis on the quantitative aspects of science, and more modern material is being included.

To portray some of the developments in content in the various study areas of science, one may examine the trends observable just in the new chemistry courses. As with the other subjects, there is a new interest in depth. To allow for this, some traditional chemistry units have been eliminated or greatly reduced. This is true of much of the descriptive material about the sulfur, phosphorus, and nitrogen compounds.

To provide more class and laboratory time for this new depth approach, more hours per week are being scheduled for chemistry and the number of semesters may be increased from two to three or four.

An increased dependence on higher mathematics is a natural result of stressing the quantitative rather than the qualitative aspects of chemistry. Three years of mathematics is a common prerequisite. Mathematics requirements may include college algebra or calculus.

There is a movement from the "cookbook" type of laboratory procedures to an "open-ended" type of activity. Experiments do not present a step-by-step procedure. They define a problem, list materials needed for its solution, and require the student to plan and conduct the procedures needed for solution. Chemistry teachers are at work developing their own unstructured laboratory experiments as well as making use of those prepared.

In earth science courses, in biology courses, in physics courses, and in physical science courses, the content is also being revised today.

The development of science programs at the junior-high level is not as well defined as it is at the senior-high level. A majority of systems are evidently undecided about their science programs at the junior-high-school level. In addition, there has not been the concentration of effort in research and planning comparable to that focused at the senior-high-school science program. Nevertheless, the influence of the senior-high-school science programs is being felt and there is an upgrading of junior-high-school science in many schools. •

There Is a Natural Hierarchy of Questions

Questioning Science

THOMAS H. BRIGGS

In The Educational Forum

A WOMAN, proud of her academic schooling, was once twitted by a friend for her ignorance about science. When he said, "I doubt if you know how we get light in this room," she indignantly replied, "Of course I do. I just press a button on the wall." Her schooling had not caused that stimulant to education, a lively inquiring mind. Such a mind persists to know such things as why a series of pictures flashed on a screen can give a visual continuum, why a rocket shot into space goes into orbit instead of falling back to earth, and even how a pin-spotter works in a bowling alley.

Knowledge about these phenomenons may not be important from a practical point of view. But the practical, that which one can use for convenience or physical comfort, is far from being the only value in life. Relief from the embarrassment of ignorance, the satisfaction of understanding, the glow of intellectual curiosity which, through growing by being satisfied, is never satiated, the comfort of being at home in one's environment—all such things enlarge the world and enrich our lives.

Everyone is interested in science of some sort and to some degree, and teachers have a challenge to find these interests and both to direct and develop them. Interest is expressed as curiosity leading to questions, usually addressed to others by those who have not learned the high satisfaction of finding answers for themselves. By nature, man is uncomfortable when confronted by something that he does not understand or when in the company of those who know what he does not know. Recognizing this discomfort, teachers of science have an opportunity to show how it can be relieved by learning.

Curiosity is usually manifested by questions; the number and kind of questions are a good indication of mental alertness and a desire to know. Infants are so full of questions that they frequently pester parents, especially when no satisfactory answers are ready. It is by questioning that they learn. Rebuffs and ridicule lessen the ques-

---

Thomas H. Briggs was for many years a Professor of Secondary Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Reported from The Educational Forum, *XXV (January 1961), 153–59.*

tioning, and perhaps that is why as the child grows older he voices fewer of the questions that arise in his mind.

A class that does not question is not being well educated. Students who ask no questions and do not persist to get satisfying answers seldom develop an independent intellectual life. They deprive themselves of the thrill of discovering for themselves, and they fail to learn how, outside the school, to find or to accept challenges, to evaluate them, to invent and test hypotheses, and to know when they have a satisfying solution.

And so we come to a realization of the importance, especially in science teaching, of recognizing questions that students raise. Not only that, but also the necessity, if young people are to become really educated, of encouraging them to raise questions when they are obstructed by ignorance on the road to an objective.

WHAT QUESTIONS?

What are natural questions when one is confronted by unusual phenomenons of nature or mechanics? For a number of years I have tried, by informal investigation, to find out. Confronting acquaintances, both young and adult, with some unusual gadget or showing them some unnoticed bit of nature, saying nothing, I waited for spontaneous questions.

Illustrative of the gadgets that I have used are a circular slide rule, a miniature light meter, a cigarette lighter activated by a metal of the platinum family being inserted into a wick saturated with methanol, and a tobacco pouch closing with a zipper, when that was a novelty. For natural phenomenons I showed the curious roots of an Indian pipe, that the circular strands of a spider's web are sticky while the orbital ones are not, pointed to varves formed in a glacial lake, and the like.

If I was asked, "Why are you showing me this?" or "Where did you find it?" of course there was no manifestation of interest. A simple answer to such a question gives complete satisfaction to a sluggish curiosity.

A more lively curiosity leads to a second type of question: "What is that for?" or "How did it come about?" Such questions invite a leading on, not by simple answers but, rather, by questions that stimulate independent thinking. Such questions suggest more careful observations, perhaps directed by questions or of readings carefully selected, with passages that are sure to be interesting for bait, or some simple experiment, like testing the intelligence of chipmunks by placing food in a variety of places. When curiosity, however slight, is manifested, a teacher faces a challenge to develop it so that it leads to something of educational value, whether practical or stimulating to the growth of an inquiring mind.

A third natural question, evidencing interest and manifesting the human instinct to relate everything to himself is "Can I work it?" or "Can I explain it?" Psychologists tell us that everybody likes to be a cause. Nobody can watch another trying to untie a knot without his fingers itching to do the job himself. This natural desire can be used to increase curiosity, for we are all more interested in what we have had some part, however slight, in causing.

These three types of natural questions may irritate a teacher whose mind is on things seemingly to him more important. But they cannot be safely ignored, for they evince incipient interests that can be developed. It is easier to increase the speed of a moving object than to get momentum from a dead start.

A fourth question, less frequently asked, was "What principle explains this?" or "What explanation is there for this phenomenon?" Such questions evince not only some maturity of intellect but also a readiness to be directed to important learning. When such questions are educed, some teacher has probably been patient in answering questions of less significance, and now there is a student who challenges a teacher's best skill to develop a scientist or one who appreciates the wonders of science as a part of his liberal education.

A fifth and final type of question, rarely heard, was "What new application of this principle is possible?" This question arises in the minds of geniuses who have the gift of invention. Benjamin Franklin had this gift. He applied the principle and invented the lightning rod. The gyroscope was at first merely an intriguing toy, but geniuses have found many important uses for it. The bouncing putty invented by Coolidge, however, still waits for some genius to find a use for it.

It would be marvelous if there were more geniuses who could apply principles and laws to enrich the world by useful invention. But such geniuses are rare. They are born with peculiar gifts which it is doubtful if education of any kind can create. Education can, however, develop curiosities that lead to accumulation of knowledge that makes invention possible.

What, then, should our schools recognize as a prime responsibility in the teaching of science? First, they should recognize that there is a natural hierarchy of questions that people ask about phenomenons, a hierarchy along which the immature should be helped to move upward. Respecting those that are spontaneous and simple, a teacher should recognize that these are the first steps along the road that he wishes students to progress. To insure that those more important questions will be raised, patience is required in giving answers to questions that rise from immature groping out of the gloom of ignorance. Respect for any sincere question makes it easier for others to be asked. And questioning leads to learning that is meaningful. •

More than One Way to Count?

Arithmetic Concepts Possessed by the Preschool Child

CORWIN E. BJONERUD

In The Arithmetic Teacher

THE first half of the twentieth century has seen many studies to determine the most desirable time to start a planned sequential instructional arithmetic program for the young child. Findings have been presented that vary from initial instruction starting in the first grade, to a recommendation that beginning formalized instruction be delayed until the seventh grade. In general, however, these studies indicate that the child benefits when systematic instruction starts during his first-grade experiences.

It is interesting to note that previous studies of arithmetic and the young child were carried out after the child was well into or past his kindergarten year of public school. While formalized instruction in arithmetic is rarely started in kindergarten, an informal program of elementary number concepts is commonly taught. This leaves many unanswered questions regarding the extent of number knowledges and skills possessed by the preschool child.

In an attempt to discover something about the arithmetic concepts possessed by the preschool child, a study was made of 100 beginning kindergarten children in the Livonia, Michigan, public schools in 1957. The study was repeated again in February 1960, with 27 pupils, all beginning kindergarten children, in the demonstration school on the campus of San Francisco State College, California. The children in the demonstration school are not a select group. They are all children of the same age residing in an assigned attendance area determined by the San Francisco Unified School District.

Corwin E. Bjonerud is a member of the faculty at San Francisco State College, California. Reported from The Arithmetic Teacher, *VII (November 1960), 347–50.*

The purpose of the study was to discover some of the specific number concepts possessed by the preschool child. In no way has the study been conducted to permit interpretation as an inventory of a child's readiness for formal instruction in arithmetic. Instead, it is hoped that the findings may bring about a closer scrutiny of what is generally accepted by teachers as normal number knowledge at the beginning of the kindergarten year, with the result that the planned instruction may be based realistically on the knowledges and needs of the five-year-old.

Two tests were developed to aid in securing the needed data. The first was an individual oral interview to test number knowledges.

The second test was a written picture-test containing arithmetical concepts that could be presented clearly in picture form. Considerable effort was made to see that each item and picture were ones familiar to five-year-olds.

In generalizing the findings, both groups will be treated as one. There was striking similarity in the data secured from both groups.

COUNTING

Considerable variance in ability to do rote counting by *one* was evidenced, but every child displayed some facility in this number knowledge. The mean for the entire group was approximately 19, while five children were able to count to 100 or higher.

Approximately 25 percent of the children exhibited some ability to do rote counting by 10, a few were able to reach 100. Some individual comments were made during this portion of the test. One was, "I thought there was only one way to count!" while another child promptly counted to sixty by fives.

There was a marked similarity between the ability to do rational counting by one and rote counting by one. The mean for the entire group was about 19. For some, as the higher numbers were reached, there was slight confusion of one-to-one correspondence. A few counted in blocks of sequence, jumping several decades and continuing without error.

Few children displayed an understanding of number sequences other than the sequence of numbers by one. Less than 10 percent understood a sequence of odd numbers, but approximately 20 percent succeeded with a sequence of even numbers less than 10.

Results of the items concerned with ordinal numbers showed that more than half of the children had some understanding of this concept. Approximately 95 percent understood the ordinal number *first*, while slightly more than 70 percent knew *middle* and *last*. At least 50 percent displayed a knowledge of the ordinal numbers *second* and *fourth*.

These beginning kindergarten children possessed considerable understanding of number selection skills and were able to recognize a quantity of items numbering less than four immediately. Some were able to recognize more than four items, but less than nine. All of the children were able to select quantities of three or less.

It was evident that many beginning kindergarten children possess a high degree of understanding of terms describing premeasurement concepts and are able to recognize several common instruments used in measurement.

When requested to name the measuring instrument to perform a specific job, 89 percent were able to name the clock and 51 percent could name the calendar. Approximately one-third were able to name accurately the yardstick, foot rule, scale, and thermometer.

There was little verbal response or interest shown when a collection of coins and a dollar bill was displayed. When asked what they could or would do with the money, little enthusiasm was evoked, with responses almost entirely limited to the idea that it was something to play with or to put in one's bank. No particular pattern developed in the knowledge displayed according to the coin's value. Eighty percent of the children immediately recognized the penny, but only 38 percent recognized the nickel.

The study revealed information about the children's abilities in several other areas. It appears that the majority of preschool children possess the ability to recognize the geometric figures of the circle and the square. A high percentage responded correctly to the pictured illustrations. There was also a high degree of skill evidenced in solving word problems that involve simple addition and subtraction facts. Almost 90 percent of the children solved addition combinations, while approximately 75 percent accurately solved subtraction combinations.

What are some of the educational implications to be drawn from the responses of these 127 beginning kindergarten children? Certainly some thought should be given to possible adjustments in the presentation of arithmetical concepts in the kindergarten and the first grade. Specifically these might include:

1. A planned arithmetic-readiness program presented at the kindergarten level. This would require a systematic presentation to replace the incidental approach that is now generally employed. It appears that this instruction could begin no later than the second semester of the kindergarten year.

2. A program of arithmetic in the first grade that would reflect the readiness period carried out in the kindergarten. The readiness program would be considerably shorter at the first-grade level for most children, but could be extended for whatever period necessary for each child before the concepts developed in the usual first-grade program are presented. This program would allow more time in the first grade for a broadened experience in arithmetic for most children.

3. An inventory of the child's number concepts should be made during the first part of the kindergarten year so that more emphasis in both the kindergarten and the first grade can be placed on developing number understandings for those children whose background experiences are limited. This would appear to be a reasonable approach, inasmuch as the data seem to indicate that the ability of beginning kindergarten children to understand many basic arithmetical concepts is a reality. •

What Would You Do?

Sociodrama as a Teaching Technique

GRACE GRAHAM

In The Social Studies

JOHN JONES, a west-coast college student, applied for a teaching position in a small eastern city. After submitting his recommendations and exchanging several letters with the superintendent of schools, he was given a contract which he signed.

John and Mary, his wife, bought a trailer. They made a leisurely trip across the United States arriving at their destination a week before the opening of school. The next morning John visited Mr. Brown, the superintendent.

Mr. Brown was very upset when he saw John Jones. "You did not tell me you are a Negro," he said. "We have never had a Negro on our faculty and the community would not stand for it. I don't know what we can do about you. I'll call a meeting of the school board to discuss the matter. But I can assure you, Mr. Jones, you will not be allowed to teach here."

John Jones went home to tell his wife the bad news and to discuss with her what they should do.

This story is ideal for the implementation of sociodrama as a teaching method. After telling the story, the teacher would tell her class:

"Now we shall act out possible solutions that John and Mary might find to their problem. Tim, you play the role of John, and Jane, you will be Mary. Remember, you decide what you are going to do and also how you think the person whose part you are playing will *feel* and talk."

Grace Graham is a member of the faculty at the University of Oregon, Eugene. Reported from The Social Studies, *LI (December 1960), 257–59.*

The teacher then chooses one or two other casts and sends the couples out of the classroom to discuss the problem. While they are out, the rest of the class quickly lists various possible solutions, such as: sue in court for a year's salary; plead with the board for a chance, agreeing that John will leave after a trial period if he does not make good; appeal to the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People for help; get another job in the vicinity; settle for compensation for time and expenses of the trip; or get a job in a Negro school.

The casts return and *extemporaneously* discuss the problem. Often the role players and the class hit on the same solutions. Sometimes the players act out an entirely different ending. The feeling that each pair puts into the dramatization varies from belligerency to dejection on the part of one or the other of the characters.

Following the role-playing, the class analyzes the solutions and the feelings portrayed in terms of reasoning, psychological authenticity, and possible consequences of alternate courses.

The setting of the John Jones story is present-day America, but any problem involving human relationships — current or historical — can be studied through sociodrama.

The advantage of sociodrama over the usual class discussion is that frequently the players, and sometimes the class, identify with the roles being portrayed. In studying current affairs, their social sensitivities are developed because they learn how it feels to be in someone else's shoes. Identification with the aspirations, disappointments, troubles, and fears of others is especially important today when so much of our society is living in tight little subcultures of suburbia.

While stories for role-playing may come from today's headlines, they may be as old as recorded history. For example, the dilemma of Tom Smithson, a Northern States-Righter at the time of the Civil War, might be emphasized through sociodrama. People who lived long ago come alive, problems seem real, and social history becomes more significant. This adds another dimension to good teaching of history: the concept of social change.

Although problems of human relationships are as old as man, the solutions chosen by persons long dead might have been different had they known what we know today. Consequently, pupils must orient their thinking to that of the period being studied. Part of the evaluation of the sociodrama should entail the historical accuracy of the data cited. At the same time, children should be reminded that some of the choices we make today might be unwise from the vantage point of 2500 A. D.

PLANNING AND PROCEDURES

The following paragraphs present an outline of planning and procedures for effective use of sociodrama in the classroom.

Planning: Select a problem of human relationships that fits the maturity level of your pupils. You may find a short story that serves the purpose, you may write your own story, or you may simply describe the characters and the situations in which they are involved to the class. In any event, the number of characters should be limited, the ending should not be suggested, and several different endings should be possible.

Procedures: Prepare the pupils to identify with the characters by explaining that you will choose some of them to act out the ending of the story you are about to tell or read. Then read or tell the story.

Choose the cast. (At first, it may be helpful to choose the actors before telling story.) To assure success with the first sociodrama, choose pupils who will cooperate willingly and will talk readily. After gaining experience, choose children who will gain from playing the role. For example, a boy who has no sympathy for labor unions may be cast in the role of a labor leader. The assumption is that he would learn something of labor's point of view.

Send the actors out of the room for a three to five minute planning session.

Let the class suggest solutions. This can be omitted but it is useful in involving the entire class. At first, this time might be spent in helping the class think through how they will evaluate the role-playing.

Students act out the conclusion of the story. The teacher should sit with the class and not interrupt unless the players are obviously changing the facts of the situation. The teacher should recognize when a decision has been reached, end the scene, and thank the performers. Sometimes the pupils do not recognize when this point is reached.

Evaluate in terms of emotional reactions portrayed, facts cited, and consequences of various courses of actions. Sometimes teachers assume that they can evaluate their pupils' emotional reactions on the basis of how they play the roles. This is confusing psychodrama, a technique used by psychiatrists, with sociodrama. You asked the pupil to play a role; let's assume he is doing just that and avoid amateur diagnosis.

A final word. Plan carefully so that you will present a clear-cut problem situation that is interesting. Don't be discouraged if the first effort fails. Sociodrama will work with any age group from kindergarteners to adults, but older persons are more likely to laugh and be selfconscious and less likely to identify on first tries than younger children. After a little experience, the chief limitation of the technique is the lack of ingenuity of the teacher. •

Other Teaching Techniques

- A second-grade teacher tells us that every year she pins the following note to the children's jackets: "Dear Parents —If you'll promise not to believe everything your child tells you that happens at school, I'll promise not to believe everything I hear about what happens at home."—From *Mississippi Educational Advance.*

- The teacher was trying to build some selfconfidence in the shy fourth-grade boy. "Is there anything you can do better than anyone else?" she asked. After a moment's reflection, the boy replied, "Yassum. I can read my own handwriting."—From *Florida School Bulletin.*

A Recent Development

Certificate Requirements for Reading Specialists

CARL HAAG, DANIEL SAYLES, and DONALD SMITH

In The Reading Teacher

THE expansion of specialized reading instruction in both elementary and secondary schools is resulting in an increased demand for reading teachers. Curriculum surveys reveal that schools are rapidly increasing their specialized reading programs. The demand for teachers is apparent in teacher placement bureaus and in the swelling enrolment of college extension courses and workshops.

Since a rapidly increasing demand for personnel often leads to appointment of ill-prepared or marginal candidates, it seemed pertinent to determine what safeguards are operating. A survey of state certification agencies was undertaken to determine the extent of reading certification requirements.

Forty-six states responded to the questionnaire. States not reporting were: Arkansas, Kansas, Nevada, and Wyoming. Of those responding, 12 states have certification requirements for reading specialists. Thirty-four states have no such requirements.

While most of the state certification officers simply replied in the negative, a few pointed out that a regular teaching certificate is required. In Missouri, a Secondary English Certificate is necessary. It is assumed that all states require a teaching certificate as a minimum, but if others have limitations similar to Missouri, it is not revealed in the responses.

Carl Haag, Daniel Sayles, and Donald Smith are members of the faculty at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Reported from The Reading Teacher, *XIV (November 1960), 98–100.*

Considerable variation in certification requirements was found among the 12 states that have enacted requirements. Academic requirements range from four to 36 hours beyond the work necessary for a bachelor's degree and a teaching certificate. Seven states require one year of classroom teaching experience, but only three states require an internship in a school or reading clinic. Three states require a master's degree.

The fact that eight of the 12 states which certify special reading teachers and consultants have enacted their requirements within the last five years seems to indicate that active interest is relatively recent. It seems reasonable to anticipate that this trend will continue, and that within the next decade more and more states will be providing for special certification of teachers of remedial and developmental reading. •

Understanding Intergroup Relations

JEAN D. GRAMBS

In NEA Journal

TEACHERS use the cultural differences existing in American life to enrich and adjust classroom instruction. In the community, however, these differences can cause conflicts and tensions. We must, therefore, seek to conserve the *value* of differences while encouraging pupils to learn how to live together cooperatively and democratically.

The following is a brief review of research related to intergroup relations that may be of help in school programs. Let us first consider some basic concepts.

Our biological family.—Anthropologists and biologists tell us that man belongs to one biological family. The physical differences in human appearance have occurred as adaptations to surroundings. Isolation of groups of people has led to selective repetition of those genes that determine skin color, hair color, eye shape, and other variations upon the same basic human theme.

Studies of civilizations miles apart and with no known connections show that again and again man has invented similar instruments and religious symbols. Hence, all men apparently have many similar spiritual and psychological needs.

Group selfesteem.—The belief that one's own culture is the center of all culture and the base for organizing one's life is called "ethnocentrism." This characteristic is found among the most primitive tribes and in the more complex societies. We like what we do. Our way of life is *right;* new and strange ways are considered *inferior.* This tendency toward group selfesteem is quite human, but it is based partly on ignorance. As groups learn about other groups, they discover that no group has a monopoly on superiority.

Man needs a place to stand.—Every person wants to belong to and be accepted by a group. When we are accepted as individuals, we feel secure and selfconfident. But this sense of security can be affected by the status of the group as a whole.

Jean D. Grambs is Lecturer in the College of Education, University of Maryland, College Park. Reported from NEA Journal, *IL (December 1960), 43–44.*

If a group is considered inferior by all surrounding groups, then the members of the low-rated group lose some of their confidence and selfesteem. This may lead to aggression, hostility, and other offensive behavior toward members of other groups. Children in the low-rated groups may turn their emotions toward the school. Seeking school achievement and getting along with others are types of "conformity" they often reject.

NO GROUP SUPERIOR

No group is superior.—Although individuals have many differences indicating their superiority in intelligence and skill to other individuals, the same does not hold true for groups. There is no such thing as *innate* group superiority. Distributions of intelligence test scores show extensive overlapping among racial groups. When educational and cultural opportunities are held constant, the differences in IQ scores often disappear.

Relationships are complex. — Numerous racial, ethnic, and religious differences are found. Cleavages, however, can occur on many other grounds. The boys of the neighborhood may feel that the girls have advantages; the older children may have hostile feelings toward the younger ones; the recent immigrants may be aggrieved about the long-time residents. Consideration of intergroup understanding must be extended to many kinds of group situations.

Some groups are more restricted than others.—Some of the most serious problems with intergroup relations are found with those groups where restrictions have been most repressive. These groups, often in the minority, are usually and readily distinguished by color of skin, dress, religious practices, and other characteristics. On certain racial and cultural differences, teachers find the strongest feelings and the most unreasonable difficulties, but also excellent opportunities for understanding intergroup relations.

The preceding paragraphs have presented some of the characteristics about groups that have been established after extensive study. The schools, especially the teachers, cannot ignore the group characteristics and differences that children bring into the school. Although physical differences cannot be erased, social and religious differences can be explained and respected; harmful and unnecessary differences can be modified or minimized.

The following paragraphs will attempt to establish some guidelines to practice that should aid in producing effective intergroup relations in the school setting.

Teachers must be objective. Without meaning to do so, classroom teachers sometimes favor one group over another. This is one explanation of why girls get fewer failing marks than boys. Influences of favoritism often help children from the "best homes" to obtain more school offices than children of minority groups.

Teachers who say, "There are no group differences in our community," should be willing to look for and examine the facts. Even in relatively homogeneous communities there may be concealed differences that would explain periodic group conflicts and pressures on individual children. When these impair the school's program, they cannot be ignored.

INSIGHT ON ATTITUDES

Attitudes are the major factors in intergroup relations. Today we have only the beginnings of insight into attitudes and how they can be changed. Our present knowledge suggests a few points of reference for the teacher:

Healthy group relationships are promoted when invidious comparisons are eliminated. Since many comparisons have little scientific basis, they can be avoided without loss.

Facts alone rarely change attitudes. Moral and emotional appeals must be made since attitudes are reflections of feelings.

Individuals are helped to change their attitudes through specific direct experiences. The Chinese are credited with saying that one picture is worth a thousand words. Similarly, a talk by a successful business or professional man from a minority group may be effective in offsetting an inaccurate perception of a group.

Experiencing an intergroup situation does not necessarily affect the attitudes of those involved. Intergroup contacts often must be discussed so that children understand the significance and the importance of differences. When improved behavior results, it should be recognized and approved.

Surface behavior and under-the-surface feelings may be quite different. Both children and adults learn to practice what is "expected," but learning new ideas and attitudes must involve sincerity of purpose and depth of feeling. Verbal conformity may not be indicative of change.

Children and youth need help in acquiring understanding of other individuals' feelings. When one tries to think from another's viewpoint, he acquires insight into intergroup situations. Role playing may help, but getting in the other fellow's shoes is not an easy thing.

Teachers can use to advantage the fights and clashes that disturb and disrupt school situations. These situations cannot be repressed or passed over. Each clash should be examined by the children themselves as to why it happened and what future behavior would be better for all.

There is little about intergroup relations that is easy. Both minority and majority group members must recognize that each has obligations; it's not a one-way street. The teacher who seeks to teach better understanding may be criticized for his efforts. Yet, the field involves many of our most important humanitarian and democratic values. •

Unrealistic in New York?

How Adequate Are Our Minimum Salaries?

BLANCHE V. WATERMAN

In New York State Education

NEW YORK state's minimum salary law, enacted in 1958, mandates a minimum teacher's salary of $4,000 in all districts. Each district employing eight or more teachers is required to adopt a local schedule which must contain at least nine annual increments, provide at least $4,600 and $5,600, respectively, for teachers in their fifth and tenth years of credited service, and include a differential of at least $300 above the bachelor's degree for teachers with a fifth year of preparation.

The highest minimum salary provided for inexperienced bachelor's degree teachers in the United States is California's $4,500 minimum (excepting Alaska's $4,650). The highest minimum for experienced teachers is provided by a 1960 Delaware law, which by 1963 will require a twelfth-year service minimum of $6,200 for bachelor's degree teachers.

A striking disparity is evident when the teacher's salary scales are contrasted with those in other fields. For civil service, the State of New York hires the majority of inexperienced college-graduate personnel under a program in which the recruiting salary is $4,600. The state also assumes the new employe's retirement contribution of 5 percent of salary—making, in effect, a starting salary of $4,830. A second year of service provides a salary increase to $4,988 with five annual increments thereafter until the seventh year of service provides a salary of $6,078.

Blanche V. Waterman is a Research Associate with the New York State Teachers Association. Reported from New York State Education, *XLVIII (January 1961), 23.*

The federal government is now recruiting inexperienced college graduates for civil service at salaries ranging from $4,345 to $6,345. Promotional opportunities make it possible to attain salaries ranging from $5,335 to $13,730 in six to seven years, depending on original qualifications and starting salary, job classification, and promotions.

New York's $4,000 minimum for teachers is becoming increasingly unrealistic for recruiting college graduates. The Endicott series of industry's recruiting salaries for inexperienced male college graduates shows that 1958 graduates were offered an average of $5,160, the 1959 graduates $5,268, and the 1960 graduates $5,496. If this trend continues, 1961 graduates will be offered an average of $5,600 or more—the minimum salary for a teacher after 10 years service. •

★ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

The New Administration.—John F. Kennedy repeatedly has underlined the crucial importance of education. Still, when he gave his state of the union message, he presented no details of his program.

First, there were more immediate problems to be tackled – foreign policy, the gold outflow, economic recession, and unemployment.

Next, there was his long fight over the House Rules Committee, won to be sure, but by a narrow margin. There's a warning here that the House consists of two parties which are almost equally balanced: Conservatives (better known as Republicans and Southern Democrats) and Liberals (Democrats with the support of a sprinkling of Republicans). The Liberals won the first round, 217-212.

At the same time, there was the aggravating problem of finding a new Commissioner of Education. There were suitable candidates for the $20,000-per-year job, but several of them couldn't afford the cut in pay. (School people don't make much to start with; if they get one of the few really top-paying jobs, they like to hang on to them. There are no stock options to facilitate the transition, and retirement plans often make the move even more expensive.) The successful man, Sterling McMurrin, was appointed only last month and won't settle down in Washington until early this month. He did not resign his job as academic vice-president of the University of Utah but took a leave of absence instead. (At least there is no conflict of financial interests and he is a higher education man to start with, so his leave of absence need not mean that he will be more or less inclined toward higher education.)

Then there is the peace corps. It may or may not be a truly educational program, but it seems to have captured the imagination of a lot of college people, educators, students. Recommendations on how to organize this program are in conflict. There was a task force report prepared by Max Millikan of MIT which pressed for high standards of selection; it sounded as if he were recommending nothing but honor graduates of a top-notch engineering school, with a sprinkling of English majors.

By way of contrast, Maurice Albertson of Colorado State University was under contract to study the feasibility of a peace corps. His preliminary report looked to the inclusion of people who had never been to college as long as they had ability and initiative. Fortunately, the reports agreed that the corps should start out small—say 500 members during the first year —and that there should be a period of orientation before the start of actual service.

One of the main functions of the corps would be to teach facts, skills, and methods, with English near the top of the list.

Again, this problem called for recommendations rather quickly, but there was no need for immediate decision.

Federal-Aid Decision.—The biggest decision in education was the perennial pressure for federal aid to education. In previous years the question was whether the Congress was prepared to vote federal funds or not; in 1961 the question was what kind of a bill the Administration should ask for.

During the campaign, the Democratic plea was for federal funds for teachers' salaries or for school construction; the Republicans asked for emergency, short-term help for construction only. Mr. Kennedy's six-man education task force assessed the need and found that the states should have a choice between construction and salary money. It recommended a package deal which would cost more money than even the National Education Association had dared to recommend.

New figures released by the U.S. Office of Education reinforce the need for action. These figures show that the classroom shortage has grown from 135,200 in 1960 to 142,100 in 1961. (To be sure, 69,400 units were built in 1960, but this was below the peak construction rate of 72,100 completions in 1957-58.)

Given the close vote on the Rules issue in the House, there was hesitation in the White House on what to recommend to the Congress to strengthen public education.

Higher Education Needs. — Finally, there should be recommendations to the Congress on the needs of higher education. A quick executive order had speeded things up by releasing an additional $100 million for college housing. This sum had been held up under the old administration in an attempt to get the budget a bit closer to balance, even though the actual expenditures might be as much as two years away, for it takes that long from commitment of the loan fund to go through blueprints and planning toward actual construction.

The real decision hinged on grants and loans for academic facilities, as recommended by the task force, and the proposal for scholarships which might be restored to the National Defense Education Act, from which they had been stricken during debate in 1958.

Other Decisions. — There were also a host of relatively minor educational decisions to be made:

√The Senate last year passed a bill to provide $1 million for each state for construction of educational television stations. The bill died in the House Rules Committee, but a similar version is now pending in the Senate. Hearings are to start early this month before the Senate Commerce Committee.

√The federally impacted areas program is due to expire in June. The Eisenhower budget called for decisive cuts, based primarily on the assumption that federal employes who lived in private homes, subject to local taxation, should not be counted as part of the federal impact on an area. Congress in recent years has not accepted this view.

√The National Defense Education Act expires in the summer of 1962. To maintain continuity, its extension should be debated and decided this year, not next. The program has its critics and its boosters. There are also those who ask first for passage of a broad federal-aid bill, with an evaluation of NDEA to follow so that the two programs can be coordinated.

√Benefits for veterans are sure to come up. Sen. Ralph Yarborough, Texas Democrat, is again advocating a measure to give educational benefits to those veterans who served after the Korean action. It's usually known as the Cold War GI Bill. Another Texas Democrat, Rep. Olin Teague, is chairman of the House Veterans Committee which may feel that other veterans' bills are more important. As yet, there is no clear evidence of backing or opposition for this bill, but sooner or later it will come up.

√Other education bills introduced in Congress are indicative of a variety of interests: tax exemptions, tax credits, driver education, school lunch and milk, exceptional children, spelling, international education, and the end is not in sight.

Civil Rights.—After 12 months of study, the U.S. Civil Rights Commission accused the federal government of being "a silent partner in the creation and perpetuation of separate colleges for Negroes." It called for future spending of federal funds to be confined to public institutions that do not discriminate on grounds of race, color, religion, or national origin.

Next, the Commission said that deprivation at the high-school level leads to more deprivation at the college level. It noted that in six states, described as "resistant," the public high schools "present a picture of deprivation varying . . . from a low of 2.6 percent Negro high schools approved by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as compared with 52.4 percent white in Mississippi, to a high of 53.9 percent Negro and 84.1 percent white high schools so approved in Florida." The six states are Louisiana, Florida, Mississippi, South Carolina, Alabama, and Georgia.

"This inferior preparation of the Negro high-school student in the segregated high school of the South helps to perpetuate the problem of segregation and discrimination at the college level. Proportionately fewer academically talented Negroes have the education foundation required for success in a first-rate college. The graduates of segregated and inferior high schools tend, therefore, in overwhelming numbers to attend segregated and generally inferior colleges.

The Commission, in calling for better control over the spending of federal funds for higher education, also warned that this must not lead to direction, supervision, or control over "the administration, curriculums, or personnel of an institution operated and maintained by a state or a political subdivision thereof."

Implications of the report for other programs of federal aid to education, present and future, seem clear enough. Rep. Adam Clayton Powell, New York Democrat and new head of the House Committee on Education and Labor, quickly pointed out that the federal government has the power to withhold funds from segregated school districts, a position he has long maintained. Because the federal government has not used this power, he explained, he had found it necessary in the past to offer his amendment which seeks to achieve the same end.

Where There's Smoke. – "Teachers are permitted to smoke in designated places within the school building in 86.3 percent of urban school districts," reports the NEA Research Division on the basis of replies to a questionnaire. Scoring highest were medium-sized school districts.

For students of high-school age, provision for smoking is made in less than 14 percent of urban school districts, with the smallest districts least liberal in their policies. A bit more than 2 percent of districts are considering the possibility of liberalizing their policies for teachers and students who wish to smoke legitimately in some part of the school grounds.

Dictionary of Degrees.—The U.S. Office of Education has published *Academic Degrees*, more than 300 pages of details about the more than 1600 different degrees currently being conferred in the U.S. In addition, there are 800 other degrees no longer in current use.

The new book seeks to organize the confusion and recommends that the variety of degrees be reduced. Similarly, it urges greater uniformity in designation and abbreviation. One by-product of the current redundancy is the victimization of students by "fraudulent institutions that award degrees without the rigorous courses of study prescribed by legitimate institutions."

The degree mills have offered more than 250 "spurious" degrees, many of which use the same designation as those offered by legitimate institutions. Others are unique: Doctor of Naturaltrics, Philosopher of Metaphysics, or Diploma of Massatherapy.

Now obsolete are some nineteenth century distortions by legitimate institutions which sought to accommodate their female graduates: Mistress of Arts, Maid of Arts, or Sister of Arts. •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Chillicothe, Ohio: **Paul W. Hydell**, formerly assistant superintendent, has been named successor to the late **Ellis B. Hatton.**

Lynchburg, Va.: **Marvin L. Carper**, formerly of Martinsville, Va., will succeed **Paul M. Munro** on his retirement in July.

Oak Park, Ill.: **Charles W. Lafferty**, superintendent of the elementary schools, has resigned, effective June 30.

Palo Alto, Calif.: **Robert H. Johnson, Jr.**, superintendent at Lakewood, Colo., has been named successor to **Henry M. Gunn**, retiring.

Freeport, N.Y.: **John W. Dodd**, superintendent for 36 years, will retire in June.

Rutherford, N.J.: **David J. Brittain**, formerly professor of education at New York University and principal of Clinton, Tenn., at the time of its integration crisis, is now superintendent, succeeding **Bernhard W. Schneider**, now superintendent at Northport, N.Y.

Long Branch, N J.: **William H. Meskill** has succeeded **Harmon M. Bradford**, retired, now on the business administration faculty at Monmouth College.

Elizabeth, N.J.: **Harry S. Adams** has resigned to become assistant commissioner, New Jersey State Department of Education.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.: **John E. Sawyer**, associate professor of economic history, Yale University, will become president July 1, succeeding **James Phinney Baxter III.**

Southwest Missouri State College, Springfield: **Leland E. Traywick**, professor of economics, Michigan State University, East Lansing, has been named successor to **Roy Ellis**, who retires Aug. 31.

Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.: **Deane W. Malott**, president since 1951, has announced his retirement in June 1963.

Eastern Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Wilburton: **E. T. Dunlap** will leave the presidency July 1 to become chancellor of the Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education, Oklahoma City, succeeding **M. A. Nash**, retiring.

State College at Framingham, Mass.: **D. Justin McCarthy**, formerly director of state colleges, Massachusetts Department of Public Instruction, has succeeded **Martin F. O'Connor**, retired.

Drew University, Madison, N.J.: **Robert F. Oxnam**, formerly president of Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N.Y., is now president.

The Cooper Union, New York City: **Richard Franklin Humphreys**, vice-president of Armour Research Foundation, Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago, Ill., has been named successor to **Edwin S. Burdell**, retired.

Hood College, Frederick, Md.: **Andrew G. Truxal** has announced his resignation to become dean of the new Ann Arundel Junior College, Severna Park, Md., in September.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.: **M. E. Alford**, formerly assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, Norfolk County schools, Va., has been appointed professor of education.

University of Kentucky, Lexington: **James B. Kincheloe**, superintendent of Fayette County schools, Lexington, will become professor of education, July 1.

San Jose State College, Calif.: **Henry M. Gunn**, who is retiring as superintendent, Palo Alto, Calif., has been appointed professor of school administration, effective in June.

University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee: **George E. Watson,** retiring state superintendent of public instruction, has been appointed professor of education, effective in September.

Beaver College, Jenkintown, Pa.: **Ira R. Kraybill,** retired executive secretary of the Middle States Commission on Secondary Schools, has been named acting head of the department of education, succeeding the late **John E. Dugan.**

University of Chicago, Ill.: **Roald F. Campbell,** director of the Midwest Administration Center, has been named first William Claude Reavis Professor of Educational Administration.

University of Miami, Coral Gables, Fla.: **Emmett A. Betts,** director of The Betts Reading Clinic, Haverford, Pa., and editor-in-chief of *Education,* has been named research professor in psychology and education in the graduate school.

OTHER CHANGES

APPOINTMENTS:

T. G. O'Keefe has succeeded **Walton B. Bliss,** retired, as executive secretary of the Ohio Education Association.

Rex Putnam, Oregon state superintendent of public instruction since 1937, has retired for health reasons. Named to fill his unexpired term until Dec. 31, 1962 is **Leon P. Minear,** formerly principal of Benson Polytechnic High School, Portland.

Kenneth E. Dawson, formerly a teacher in the Montgomery County, Md., public schools, has been appointed the first full-time executive secretary of the American Industrial Arts Association.

The Rev. Theodore M. Hesburgh, president of the University of Notre Dame, is the new president of the Association of American Colleges, succeeding **David A. Lockmiller.**

RECENT DEATHS:

Irving Lorge, professor of education and executive officer of the Institute of Psychological Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, at the age of 56. An authority on the psychology of learning, he had devised more than 50 standard psychological tests.

John W. Withers, dean emeritus of the school of education, New York University, and a former superintendent of schools at St. Louis, Mo., at the age of 92.

NASSP Convention

TESTING of high-school students for admission to college and for scholarships is getting "completely out of hand," Charles C. Holt told members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals at the Association's 45th annual convention in Detroit, Feb. 11-15.

Mr. Holt, who is director of a joint project on testing being sponsored by the NASSP, the American Association of School Administrators, and the Council of Chief State School Officers, reported that while some sort of testing for scholarships and college admission is necessary, there are too many such tests and too much duplication in what they try to measure. In addition to being expensive, there are some things, such as creativity, motivation, and determination, which testing cannot measure, he said.

Another speaker at the convention, David D. Henry, president of the University of Illinois, proposed the creation of a "council of advisers to the President" which would function outside the control of the federal government and which would serve as "the national instrument for the appraisal of the condition of education." The council would function in the same manner as the Council of Economic Advisers and the Council of Science Advisers.

Attendance at the convention hit an all-time record, 6,500, as the NASSP returned to Detroit for the first time since it was founded there in 1916. James D. Lofsden, superintendent of Thornton Township High School and Junior College, Harvey, Ill., was installed as president of the organization, succeeding James E. Nancarrow, principal of Upper Darby Senior High School, Pa.

Unesco Expands Program

An expanded education program was a principal accomplishment of the Unesco Eleventh General Conference, recently held in Paris.

The Conference decided that Unesco would assist member states in the improvement of teacher-training and curriculum development, in the development of methods for teaching science and modern languages, and in the use of audio-visual aids. More than 200 experts will be provided to member states for these purposes.

African needs held the main educational spotlight. African education projects coming from the Conference include the creation of centers for the training of teachers, a regional office for educational research, the organization of training courses and seminars for senior personnel, and assistance to secondary education, to universities, and to adult education. An educational emergency assistance program for the Congo (Leopoldville), financed by the United Nations, also was approved.

Higher Education Aid

The American Council on Education in February published *A Proposed Program of Federal Action to Strengthen Higher Education* which presented three basic recommendations for federal support.

The Council recommendations, in order of urgency and priorities, are: $350 million annually in loans for dormitories and an average of $1 billion annually for loans and matching grants for classrooms, libraries, and laboratories; a broad expansion of fellowship programs to increase the supply and improve the quality of college teachers; and greater financial assistance for qualified college students. The last would include provision for a minimum of 25,000 new scholarships each year, including a new program of scholarships starting with $25 million the first year and rising to a total annual expenditure of $100 million in the fourth year.

The Council, speaking for more than 1,200 member institutions and organizations, reported general agreement on an anticipated increase of at least a million full-time students between 1958 and 1965 and another million between 1965 and 1970, with a consequent rise in costs. This will require greater support from the federal government, it stated.

Report on Merit Scholars

AMERICA'S first class of Merit Scholars achieved a distinguished record of academic and extracurricular leadership in college, the National Merit Scholarship Corporation announced in its recently-issued 1960 annual report.

The report reveals that almost 80 percent of the 461 Merit scholars who received their degrees in 1960 or before were graduated with academic honors. More than 60 percent of the graduates were elected to one or more national academic honor societies. Almost all graduates were active in extracurricular organizations, and nearly one in five won national or campus honors for student leadership. Three out of four former Scholars are now enrolled in graduate or professional studies, and nearly eight out of 10 of them hold a fellowship or assistantship. And all but 10 of the 555 students in the first class are expected to obtain a college degree.

The Merit Scholarship Corporation points out that these statistics take on added significance when it is considered that these Merit Scholars were selected from a wide variety of family, social, economic, geographical, and educational backgrounds. Furthermore, they chose their own colleges and curriculums, and most of them enrolled in colleges where competition is keen and in demanding courses of study.

New Conant Study

TEACHER education and certification will be the subject of the next study by James B. Conant. Announcement of a $300,000 grant for the study was made in February by the Carnegie Corporation.

Dr. Conant, who has completed two studies on American education —*The American High School Today* and *Education in the Junior High School Years*—will begin this new two-year study in September. Among the topics to be included will be the preparation of public-school teachers and the criterions for their employment as established by local, regional, and state education authorities.

On his staff for the first year will be John I. Goodlad, professor in the school of education, University of California, Los Angeles; Jeremiah S. Finch, Princeton University; William Cartwright, Duke University; Robert Carbone, University of Chicago; and E. Alden Dunham, a member of Dr. Conant's staff for the past three years.

The Education Testing Service, Princeton, N.J., will administer the grant for the study.

Invalidates Oath Law

A CALIFORNIA law that required declarations of loyalty from organizations seeking to use public-school facilities was held unconstitutional in January by the California State Supreme Court.

The court ordered the school boards of Los Angeles and San Diego to open school auditoriums to meetings of the American Civil Liberties Union without first demanding assurance that the organization does not advocate violent overthrow of the government.

The court's opinion observed that in the struggle against the Communist threat "we must be careful not to adopt the Communist methods."

NET Department

NATIONAL Educational Television (NET) in February established a new Department of Utilization to develop maximum educational effectiveness of selected NET programs.

The new department will work with NET's affiliated stations and with educational institutions to plan and develop systematic study-discussion programs and other educational programs for adults.

John F. White, NET president, reports that unlike most commercial programs, which are entities in themselves, the NET program is most successful if, when it is over, it stimulates the viewer to snap off the set and do something—get a book and read further on the subject or seek out a discussion group." The new department will attempt to foster this.

Henry Alter is director of the new department, for which the Fund for Adult Education has made a grant of $200,000.

ASCD Convention

JAMES B. CONANT will head the list of general session speakers at the 16th annual conference of The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, to be held Mar. 12-16 in Chicago, Ill.

Dr. Conant, author of recent studies on the American high school and junior-high school, will speak on "Trial and Error in the Improvement of Education."

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Mar. 5-8, Association for Higher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 11-14, American Association of School Administrators, regional meeting, St. Louis, Mo.

Mar. 12-16, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 18-22, Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, Atlantic City, N.J.

Mar. 25-28, American Association of School Administrators, regional conference, Philadelphia, Pa.

Mar. 25-29, National Science Teachers Association, Chicago, Ill.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

April 2-7, Association for Childhood Education International, Omaha, Neb.

April 4-7, National Catholic Educational Association, Atlantic City, N.J.

April 4-7, American Industrial Arts Association, St. Louis, Mo.

April 4-8, National Council o Teachers of Mathematics, Chicago, Ill.

April 10-15, National Art Education Association, Miami Beach, Fla.

April 16-22, National Library Week.

April 19-22, National Association for Gifted Children, New York, N.Y.

April 24-28, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA, Miami Beach, Fla.

June 25-30, National Education Association, Atlantic City, N.J.

The Creative Individual. Harriet E. Peet. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1960. Pp. xi + 188. $4.50.

Emphasizing that the need for creative individuals capable of assuming responsibility and making wise decisions is becoming increasingly greater, the author examines the maturing of the individual during present and near-future conditions.

The author discusses the development in children of a wholesome attitude toward life and of the ability to think clearly and to live up to the ideals of behavior that leads to selffulfillment and social competence. Attention is drawn to the stages through which an individual passes as he grows into maturity and to the ways of meeting his needs at each stage. The problems of the mature student and of the adults in a community are also considered.

Teaching for Critical Thinking. C. Burleigh Wellington and Jean Wellington. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. vii + 364. $6.50.

With emphasis on teaching at the secondary-school level, this book describes the development of a talented teacher by discussing both his aim for critical thinking and the method for achieving it.

The authors, both professors of education at Tufts University, believe that each of us possesses a basic aptitude for teaching, but only by developing this aptitude through study and effort can one become a good teacher. The authors describe this development by discussing both the aim and basic method as they see them. Concepts and techniques discussed in the book are accompanied by their philosophic or psychological implications. Applications are discussed in case form.

The authors declare it is their purpose not so much to gain agreement as to offer new possibilities. "Believe us if you can," they say. "Disagree if you must; but think and become concerned about the ideas and thoughts presented."

Education in the Nation's Service. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, Publishers, 1960. Pp. x + 193. $4.75.

This book consists of eight essays by prominent American educators analyzing our educational system today. They were conceived in answer to the question of how colleges and universities can best serve the nation today. The essays were commissioned by The Woodrow Wilson Foundation.

The authors included in the volume are Archibald MacLeish, McGeorge Bundy, Robert F. Goheen, Logan Wilson, Harry D. Gideonse, Jacques Barzun, John Hersey, and William Lee Miller. These writers examine scores of problems and issues in the field of education today.

The introduction to the book is written by August Heckscher, president of The Woodrow Wilson Foundation.

The Education of Nations. Robert Ulich. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961. Pp. xiii + 325. $6.75.

Both historical and comparative methods are used by the author of this book in discussing the forces that have molded the educational systems and ideals of a number of nations. He subtitles the book "A Comparison in Historical Perspective."

After a section on historical and cultural foundations, the author, who is a James Bryant Conant Professor of Education, Emeritus, at Harvard University, discusses education in the individual countries—England, France, Germany, United States, Russia, and the "new nations" of Asia and Africa. He proposes principles of action in contacts between the U. S. and statesmen and educators of Asia and Africa to obviate the severe danger that threatens humanity if the new countries "understand Western education merely as a road toward technological efficiency and power, without seeing its deeper moorings."

Graduate Education in the United States. Bernard Berelson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. vi + 346. $6.95.

Another volume in the Carnegie Series in American Education, this book brings together all the important data on graduate education available. It consists of three sections: Part one reviews the history of graduate education in this country, exploring its growth, development, and present status in the educational system. Part two is an analysis of the programs and issues current in the system of graduate education. Part three presents the author's conclusions, commentary, and recommendations for a course of action.

The book also contains a detailed appendix, including a bibliography and statistical information concerned with the study.

Mr. Berelson, a former dean of the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago and the present director of the Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, concludes the introduction to this book with the statement:

". . . One dean advised me to 'write a short, concise report with clear recommendations.' Another advised me to 'go out on a limb' in saying what ought to be done. The third advised me to 'stick to the facts.' I have tried to follow the advice of all three."

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

Science Is Fun, Science Is Learning, and **Science Is Exploring.** Wilbur L. Beauchamp and Helen J. Challand. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1961. Pp. 112, 128, and 168. First-, second-, and third-grade texts in the new Basic Science Program. Pupils' editions, $2.20, $2.44, and $2.68, respectively. Teachers' editions include a guidebook in an unusual handy form.

Don't Push Me! Edited by Margaret Rasmussen. Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1960, Pp. 40. $.75. Contains 11 articles on pressures and children.

Red Man, White Man, African Chief; The Story of Skin Color; and **Lefty, The Story of Left-Handedness.** Marguerite Rush Lerner. Minneapolis, Minn.: Medical Books for Children, 1960. Pp. 30. $2.75 each.

At a Zoo. Henri Wenkart. Cambridge, Mass.: Henri Wenkart, 1960. Pp. 23. $.58. First of a series of early books for children learning to read by phonics system.

Mathematics, Grade 7. Curriculum Bulletin No. 2, 1959-60, New York City Board of Education. Pp. 199. Available from New York Board of Education Publications Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N.Y. $1.00.

Elementary Concepts of Sets. Edith J. Woodward and Roderick C. McLennan. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960. Pp. v + 50. $.60.

SECONDARY

Adventure Bound and **Journeys into America.** Arno Jewett, Marion Edman, *et al.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961. Pp. x + 630 and x +

662. $4.12 and $4.20, respectively. Books 7 and 8 in Reading for Meaning program.

Tested Timed Writings. (Second Edition.) M. Fred Tidwell, Mary L. Bell, and Leonard J. Porter. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. 64. $1.36. For typing tests.

Social Studies in Secondary Schools; Curriculum and Methods. Dorothy McClure Fraser and Edith West. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1961. Pp. vi + 476. $6.50.

GENERAL

Study Abroad, 1960-61. Unesco. Available from International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, New York. Pp. 766. $3.00. An international handbook of fellowships, scholarships, and educational exchanges.

Why Children Become Delinquent. John M. Gran. Baltimore: Helicon Press, 1961. Pp. 200. $3.95.

Mechanical - Electrical Equipment Handbook for School Buildings; Installation, Maintenance and Use. Harry Terry. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. xi + 412.

A Teacher's Guide to Children's Books. Nancy Larrick. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1960. Pp. xx + 316. $4.95.

Historical Fiction and Historical Non-Fiction. (Seventh Editions.) Compiled by Hannah Logasa. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1960. Pp. 316 and 288. $6.50 each; $12.00 for the set. These lists of historical books, formerly published together, are now in separate books.

Taxes for the Schools. Roger A. Freeman. Washington, D.C.: The Institute for Social Science Research, 1960. Pp. xxxvii + 441. $5.00. Vol. 2 in the research project, "Financing the Public Schools." The first volume was *School Needs in the Decade Ahead*, published in 1958.

MENTAL RETARDATION

Readings and Resources

Edited by JEROME H. ROTHSTEIN, San Francisco State College. An important addition to this field of special concern, this book of 55 articles, bound together by the editor's excellent introductory notes, concentrates primarily on material published within the past five years. A wealth of special resource material includes lists of films and materials, lists of curriculum guides, and reading lists for parents.

CONTENTS: General Considerations; Assessment, Diagnosis, and Classification of Mental Retardation; Implications of Mental Retardation; Learning Theory and Mental Retardation; School Programs for the Educable Mentally Retarded; Secondary School Programs for the Mentally Retarded; School Programs for the Trainable Retarded Child; Postschool Programs for the Mentally Retarded; Institutional Programs; Speech Development for the Mentally Retarded; Parent Counseling; National, State, and Local Programs; Teachers of the Mentally Retarded; Research; A Look at the Future. May, 1961, 608 pp., $5.75, tentative.

Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
383 Madison Ave., N.Y.

Reading and the Psychology of Perception. Hunter Diack. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1960. Pp. xxiii + 155. $6.00.

Gregg Notehand. Louis A. Leslie, Charles E. Zoubek, and James Deese. New York: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. 320. $5.95. A personal-use shorthand with integrated instruction in how to make notes.

Purchase Guide for Programs in Science, Mathematics, Modern Foreign Languages. Prepared by the Council of Chief State School Officers and the Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1960. Pp. vii + 336. $3.95.

Organization of Special Education for Mentally Deficient Children. International Bureau of Education. New York: Columbia University Press, International Documents Service, 1960. Pp. 272. $3.00.

AUDIO-VISUALS

Demasiados Perros and El Hoyo del Cerro. Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1960. Beginning-to-read Spanish books and companion record. Books, $1.25 each. Record, 33 1/3 LP, $3.50.

Panorama. A new audio-visual program offered as a subscription service of Columbia Record Club, New York City. A free colorslide projector with a one-year subscription. Monthly package includes a set of 32 single-frame 35mm color filmstrip, a book, and a 7" LP record. Three subject categories available: travel, art, and nature and science.

The Tape Recorder in the Classroom. Julia Mellenbruch. Austin, Tex.: University of Texas Visual Instruction Bureau, 1959. Pp. 67. $2.00

The Life and Death of a Cell. A 16mm color, sound movie. Available from Department of Visual Communication, University Extension, University of California, Los Angeles. $195. Also available for rental.

First Experiments with Air. A series of five color filmstrips. Available from The Jam Handy Organization, Detroit, Mich. $26.25 for the series; $5.75 each filmstrip.

READER INFORMATION SERVICE

Send in this coupon to get additional information easily and quickly from the advertisers in this issue and about the materials listed in "New Educational Materials."

☐ **Holt, Rinehart and Winston New Book**

☐ **Scott, Foresman and Company Dictionary**

☐ **Prakken Publications**

I would also like more information on the following books and other materials listed in this issue:

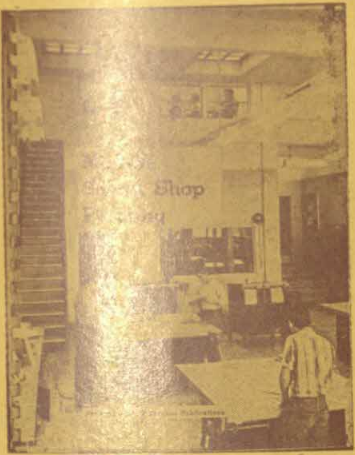
....

....

Name .... **Position** ....

Address M-61

BOOKS, BOOKLETS, AND CHARTS
For Your Industrial-Education Department



Modern School Shop Planning

The only book on the market that completely covers the planning problems of school shops—equipment lists, safety factors, principles of purchasing, standards, suggested shop layouts, etc.

184 Pages **$3.85**

Machinists' Ready Reference

Compiled by C. Weingartner. Contains 100 of the most used tables and charts. Pocket-sized. The handiest, neatest machinists' handbook yet devised. Well indexed. **$1.50**

Diamond Dust

By Tom Diamond. A collection of tongue-in-cheek articles emphasizing practical pedagogical points. Light reading-with-a-purpose. 112 pages. **$2.00**

Campbell's Drafting Time Savers

"Machine Drafting Data," a four-page quick-reference chart. "The Dimensioning of Machine Drawings," a 20-page booklet giving information on rules of dimensioning.

$1.00 each item for 1-5 copies; $.85 each, 6-10 copies; $.75 each, 11-50 copies; $.60 each, 51 or more copies.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

On-approval copies of these publications available to administrators and supervisors for 10-day examination.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

330 Thompson Street
Ann Arbor, Michigan

29 APR 1961

BEGINNING DICTIONARY
Grade 4

JUNIOR DICTIONARY
Grades 5-6

ADVANCED JUNIOR DICTIONARY
Grades 7-8

HIGH SCHOOL DICTIONARY
Grades 9-12

Build the dictionary habit with dictionaries your pupils can and will use. There's a

THORNDIKE-BARNHART DICTIONARY

to give every child the language help he needs at each stage of his development from Grade 4 through high school.

SCOTT, FORESMAN AND COMPANY

Chicago 11 Atlanta 5 Dallas 2 Palo Alto Fair Lawn, N.J.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

CONTENTS

From High School to Job
Carnegie Corporation Annual Report 1
Why Federal Money for Teachers' Salaries?
NEA Journal 5
Those Maligned Education Courses
School and Society 8
Merit Rating: Past, Present, and Perhaps
Phi Delta Kappan 12
The Proposals of Dr. Conant
Teachers College Record 15
Who Is a Good Teacher? . . The Clearing House 19
Vandalism . . . . . The Nation's Schools 22
he New Technology
National Elementary Principal 24
Reading Research . . . . Elementary English 28
ood Reasons for Doing Nothing
The News Letter 32
Spare the Rod . . . . . . Grade Teacher 35
Uniformity vs. Diversity in High School
Educational Leadership 38
Beware the Foreign-Language Band Wagon
The Elementary School Journal 41
Why Not Individualize Arithmetic?
The Arithmetic Teacher 44
The Changing Business Program in High School
Business Education Forum 47
Italic Writing . . Independent School Bulletin 50
Teaching Anthropology in High School
Washington Education 52
With Education in Washington 54
Educational News 58
New Educational Materials 61

LIBRARY

Volume XXVI April 1961 Number 8

THE EDUCATION DIGEST STAFF

LAWRENCE W. PRAKKEN, Editor and Publisher
JEROME C. PATTERSON, Managing Editor
WARREN R. GOOD, Associate Editor
OLIVER E. HANNINEN, Assistant Editor
BURLEY L. HENDRICKS, Assistant Editor
BARBARA N. LEAKE, Circulation Manager

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

THOMAS D. BAILEY, Superintendent, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida
NATT B. BURBANK, Superintendent of Schools, Boulder, Colorado
JOHN S. CARTWRIGHT, Superintendent of Schools, Allentown, Pennsylvania
ARTHUR F. COREY, Executive Secretary, California Teachers Association, Burlingame
LYMAN V. GINGER, Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington
PHILIP J. HICKEY, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis, Missouri
HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, Chief, Elementary Schools Section, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
L. S. MICHAEL, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois
FRED RAUBINGER, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey
JAMES E. RUSSELL, Secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.
GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Principal, The Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut
RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington
DONALD E. TOPE, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene
HENRY I. WILLETT, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

MEMBER OF

EDUCATIONAL
PRESS
ASSOCIATION
OF
AMERICA

Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N.Y., Lexington 2-0020. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 818 Waukegan Ave., Glenview, Ill., PArk 4-0800. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 711 S. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1961 by Lawrence W. Prakken

Volume XXVI April 1961 Number 8

Education May Take Place in Many Settings

From High School to Job

John W. Gardner

In The Carnegie Corporation of New York Annual Report

IN JUNE of this year approximately 1,873,000 boys and girls will graduate from high school, and approximately 993,000 of these will go on to full-time or part-time college work. I want to talk about the 880,000 boys and girls who will not go to college at all—and about an additional 900,000 who dropped out before high-school graduation.

The great prestige that college education today has achieved is the source of many false notions, and one of the worst is that it is the only form of continued learning after high school. This false emphasis we place on continued formal schooling has two unfortunate consequences. On the one hand, it exerts pressure on the young person to continue his schooling whether or not he has any taste or aptitude for it. This is often harmful to him; it is always costly to society; and it leads to make-believe education. On the other hand, if he drops out of high school or doesn't go on to college, he is led to believe that he has landed on the scrap heap and that further learning or growth is out of the question. This is disastrous for his morale and in the long run dangerous to society.

John W. Gardner is President, Carnegie Corporation of New York. Reported from The Carnegie Corporation of New York Annual Report, *1960, 11–20.*

We cannot do anything immediately to alter the fierce overemphasis on continued formal schooling. But we might devise a system that will avoid some of the worst evils that have flowed from this overemphasis. Such a system will be one in which a young person's transition from the formal educational system to the outside world is not an unceremonious rejection, but a carefully planned transfer to a new setting for personal growth.

Once a young person has left school, no one is officially concerned with his educational or vocational future. It is not usually regarded as a responsibility of the school. But it should be. We should not simply turn these boys and girls out on the streets. They need advice. They need jobs. They need to be helped to think constructively about their own abilities and limitations, about job opportunities, and about their further learning and growth.

To be specific, every high school in the land should provide *continuing* vocational and educational counseling for all who leave school short of college. These services should be available until the boy or girl reaches the age of 21.

The personnel responsible for this service should be professionally equipped to appraise the young person's potentialities. They should be fully acquainted with the kinds of training available outside the formal system, and thoroughly informed about work opportunities in the area. Besides offering vocational counseling, some school districts may wish to operate their own employment service. If not, then they should maintain close relations with established agencies, particularly the local State Employment Service. The high school should keep the student's record active until he reaches 21; and an attempt should be made to keep informed of his progress in activities he undertakes.

As for the cost of such service, it would be an added expense to the schools, but not necessarily to society as a whole. Young people who fail to get jobs or who become delinquents are a costly burden on the whole community; and every boy or girl whose abilities are not developed is a loss to society. It is better to spend money preventing such outcomes than to spend it later picking up the pieces.

Those responsible for these services would be dealing primarily with boys and girls who had attained the limit of their ability to profit from formal education. It would still be necessary to watch for those whose abilities would permit them to go further in education than they had chosen to go. Such young people, if properly advised, might reconsider their decision. Or, if they insist on ending their formal schooling, they might consider resuming their education after a period of work. Particularly in culturally impoverished areas, too many bright youngsters end their schooling too soon.

TRANSITIONAL PLANS

For many students the movement from school to job can be facilitated by various transitional arrangements. These are particularly important for students who do not complete high school.

One means of effective transition between school and community is the work-study program, in which the student spends part of his time on a job and part in school. Such programs deserve far greater adoption than they have had to date.

The night school is a common solution and a valuable service for many youngsters who leave school early, realize later the error of their decision, and seek to acquire further education. Night classes in the public schools are breaking all attendance records; and more than one-quarter of the present attendance is in trade courses for semi-skilled or skilled workers. The courses offer a surprising range of opportunities for the young person who wishes to test his aptitudes and to develop skills.

The transitional experiences need not be under the auspices of the school. Today there are increasing numbers of opportunities to combine working and learning. A well-conducted counseling program should make the young person aware of these opportunities.

Training programs within industrial corporations have expanded until they constitute a respectable proportion of all education today. Apprenticeship systems have declined in the skilled crafts and trades, but they are still in operation in every major industry and offer wide opportunities to an ambitious youth. Some labor unions have impressive educational programs, various branches of government offer jobs that involve an opportunity to learn while working, and the armed services offer training in a great many occupational specialties. There also exist considerable numbers of special schools—for designing, photography, nursing, and the like which the young person not going on to college should consider.

While correspondence study offers the most flexible opportunities for study beyond high school, the young people who drop out early usually have little enthusiasm for paper-and-pencil work, and that is what correspondence study amounts to.

Educational programs on radio and television continue to expand and provide yet another opportunity for the young person to study beyond high school. And, of course, jobs themselves are a form of education.

Unfortunately, jobs are not always plentiful for the boy or girl who does not go to college. And those who drop out of high school have even a harder time. Neither employers nor organized labor welcome their appearance on the labor market, and juvenile unemployment is a serious problem today, particularly in the big cities. It may become considerably more serious in the years ahead. An ever-increasing number of young men and women will enter the labor market in the 1960's (40 percent more than in the 50's); and automation will almost certainly diminish the number of jobs available to these relatively unskilled young people.

If schools have good vocational programs, well-planned transitional programs of the work-study variety, and first-class counseling services, then they are in a position to answer the question: "When should the boy or girl be allowed to terminate his full-time formal schooling?" And the answer will be, "At whatever point it has been clearly demonstrated to responsible officials that he can gain little by continuing."

There has been a tendency to offer more schooling as the only solution to providing for the needs of academically less able students. There comes a time when that is not the answer, and the failure to see the constructive alternatives is leading us into deeper and deeper absurdities. It is leading too many young people into educational paths that reward them only with the conviction that they are misfits. The truth is that in the case of the youngster who is not very talented academically, continuance of formal schooling may simply prolong a situation in which he is doomed to failure.

A number of forward-looking communities (Milwaukee, for example) have demonstrated that there are highly constructive ways of dealing with the transitional experience for young people of limited academic ability. It is high time that every school system in the nation address itself to this problem.

The successful transition of young people from school to job will become easier to accomplish as the artificial wall between the schools and the outer world breaks down. That wall has been crumbling for some time and is certain to disintegrate further. The vast development of industrial, military, and other educational programs outside the formal systems is striking evidence of that fact. In some communities, the young person may get almost precisely the same course in a school setting or in an industrial setting.

Also disintegrating is the notion that education is something that goes forward with no interruption until it is capped by some sort of graduation ceremony, whereupon it ends forever. We are coming to realize that education should be lifelong, that it may be interrupted at many points, and that it may take place in many settings.

We should expect it to become an accepted practice for men and women to enrol in one or another kind of educational program intermittently throughout their lives. The boy who leaves school early may resume his education after a period of work or military service. The mature individual may enrol in an educational program to acquaint himself with new technological developments or sheerly for enjoyment. Women may return to study after family responsibilities are over. And retired people may resume their education.

When the populace comes to recognize that education should be an enduring thing in their lives and can take place in a variety of settings, then the artificial emphasis on certain types of education will recede. Emphasis will be on individual fulfillment and personal growth, however they may best be furthered. And they will be sought for all. •

Why Federal Money for Teachers' Salaries?

PATRICK MCNAMARA

In NEA Journal

MOST Americans – including leaders of the two major political parties–appear to agree on the following four statements regarding education:

1. Quality education is necessary for the continued growth and security of the United States. 2. Quality teachers are the heart of quality education. 3. To attract and retain quality teachers, we must pay higher salaries. 4. Some new form of national financial support is necessary if teachers are to be paid professional salaries.

At this point the specter of federal control enters the picture. A few people maintain that if federal money goes toward the payment of teachers' salaries, the federal government will control our public schools. They say, "Let's have federal support for school construction only. This will free state and local money for raising teachers' salaries. By this means, teachers will be paid more money, but will not be tainted by federal money."

I believe this line of reasoning to be misleading for two reasons. First, for many years we have had federal support for our schools, including federal money for teachers' salaries, without federal control.

Second, money appropriated for school construction *only* would not result either directly or indirectly in any substantial improvement in teachers' salaries.

Historically, federal support has not meant federal control. For generations, the federal government has made money available for the payment of teachers' salaries in certain public schools and colleges.

Perhaps the most outstanding example is the smoothly operating Public Law 874, which provides federal funds for schools in federally impacted areas. Funds have been made available to the states under this law since 1950 and may be used for teachers' salaries if the local district so chooses. At present, between 60 and 65 percent of the funds are actually being spent on salaries.

As of June 1959, a total of 3762 school districts received funds under this act. Pupil enrolment in these districts totalled 9.5 million.

Patrick McNamara is U.S. Senator (Dem.) from Michigan. Reported from NEA Journal, *L (February 1961), 12–14.*

In other words, the teachers of one-fourth of the children enrolled in our nation's public elementary and secondary schools are *now* receiving a salary supplement from federal funds.

A careful study in 1956 of a sample of school superintendents who had been administrators under Public Law 874 revealed that 99 percent of the superintendents stated that the provision of PL 874 which prohibited "any direction, supervision, or control over the personnel, curriculum, or program of instruction of any school system" had been completely complied with by officials of the United States government.

There are other examples of federal support without federal control, the oldest being the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, enacted under the Articles of Confederation three years before our federal Constitution was ratified.

The Northwest Ordinance of 1787 set aside the sixteenth section of land in every township in the new territories for the maintenance of public schools. The proceeds from these lands were the original nest eggs that made possible the establishment of the public schools in many states. Even today, the proceeds from these lands continue to contribute to the operating expenses of the public schools in many instances.

Other examples of federal aid without federal control are the Land Grant Act of 1862 and the government's vocational training program, in operation since 1918. These examples prove that we can have a national support bill without federal control.

"RELEASE" MONEY

As for the second point, here is why construction-only federal support would not free local and state money to increase teachers' salaries: One of the basic fallacies in the argument that funds for construction will "release" money for salaries is the assumption that all states have money that *can* be released for teachers' salaries. This is not the case in many states.

The argument also assumes that all states and school districts have substantial school construction needs or heavy debt loads for past school construction. Many states and school districts have been "starving" their teachers while force-feeding construction budgets. In all too many instances the need for salaries is greatest and the need for construction is least.

For example, the number of students in many rural districts is fairly constant or decreasing. Present school-building facilities are adequate. The big problem in these areas is to maintain salaries at a level high enough to hold the qualified teachers they have. This same situation exists in the economically depressed areas of the nation.

MILLAGE LIMIT

Another reason a construction-only bill wouldn't increase teachers' salaries: Approximately 18 states have a millage limit, either constitutional or statutory, on the amount local districts can levy for current operating expenses, which is where all salary funds come from. If the federal government contributed money for building construction, which is a capital expense, the money "released" could not be used for salaries in those states unless the laws or constitutions were changed.

CAPITAL FUND TRANSFER

Transfer of money from capital funds to current operating expenses would be just as unlikely in the 2,050 fiscally dependent school districts in this country, which employ about one-fifth of our nation's teachers. These districts include many of our big cities. Capital funds—construction money—for these schools are buried in the total capital funds for municipalities or counties.

Money paid by the federal government into these funds might "free" money for other municipal capital outlays such as streets, sewers, firehouses. It is wishful thinking to contend that money from this capital fund would find its way to the current operating fund and would eventually be used to increase teachers' salaries.

Furthermore, a debt-service proposal for helping to pay old school construction debts would discriminate against those districts which have been building on a pay-as-you-go basis. Neither a debt-service proposal nor a grant-for-construction proposal would "release" money for teachers' salaries in such districts.

In singling out school construction as the only aspect of the school program for which funds can be spent, especially if they must be matched by local or state funds, the Congress would be denying state and local school systems discretion in determining for themselves their greatest need for additional expenditures.

Such a proposal could also cause some state or local systems to overallocate money for construction (in order to be eligible for federal funds) and thereby divert money that might better be spent on salaries.

In effect, a school construction bill would actually exercise an element of federal control over local school boards while a freedom-of-choice bill providing funds for teachers' salaries and/or school construction would enable the boards to have greater control over their school programs.

Therefore, I believe in the principle of national financial support for teachers' salaries and/or school construction. Under such a plan, state and local school systems should be given the freedom to make the decisions about how much money should be used for increasing teachers' salaries, how much for hiring additional teachers, and how much for constructing classrooms. Such a bill would really strengthen state and local control of education. •

The Real Weaknesses

Those Maligned Education Courses

RAYMOND P. HARRIS

In School and Society

Raymond P. Harris is Director of Secondary Education, Mount Vernon, New York. This article is an excerpt from the book American Education: Facts, Fancies, and Folklore *soon to be published by Random House, Inc. Reported from* School and Society, *LXXXVIII (December 1960), 482–87.*

SOME of the most savage attacks in the history of American education have been directed at the courses college students must take for teacher certification. It is charged that they are so simple-minded that students inevitably view them as the "snap" courses on the campus and that, besides, they go over the same subject matter again and again.

The criticism of teacher education is more impressive in volume than in accuracy; nearly all the criticism results from an unreflective "folklore" attitude toward education.

Some critics, who proclaim the superiority of schools of 50 years ago, base their arguments in part on the absence of professional teacher training in those days, while conveniently forgetting—or ignoring—the limited academic education of the teachers in those schools.

Forty years ago graduates of an eight-year elementary school could enter the normal school—the precursor of the teachers college—study there for as little as two years, and return as teachers to the elementary school. Admirable though they were in many respects, it is brash to claim that those teenagers were better teachers than today's professionals with their four or five years of college education—as brash a contention with regard to teaching as it would be for any other modern profession. Nor were some of the high-school teachers of 40 years ago much better off; many had had scarcely more education than their students. It was not unusual to go into teaching after only a year or two of college, and once in a while someone who had never graduated from the twelfth grade moved up the teaching ladder from the elementary grades into high school.

One of the favorite ploys used in attacking the professional courses in education today is to mention the name of the most distinguished mathematician who comes to mind and lament the fact that certification requirements would not permit him to teach arithmetic in the elementary school. This is intended as a crushing demonstration of the fallacy of requiring people to learn how to teach before licensing them. It is exceedingly probable, however, that this "Looky-Looky" statement, "Professor Eminence cannot teach arithmetic in the public schools," is true in more ways than one. Teaching arithmetic effectively to 30 children requires specific skills that the professor is not likely to have had opportunities to develop. One suspects that he would prefer not to make the attempt.

State certification requirements represent the best efforts to date to protect youngsters from unqualified teachers They are as appropriate in education as licensing procedures are in any other profession. Any detailed study of them will reveal that they maintain a balance between academic and education courses and thus prevent inadequacies in content or method. Certification requirements are not the results of a conspiracy among educators; they have been established openly and legitimately, and they have been revised whenever necessary. They are the school's strongest bulwark.

Let us consider the educational courses that lead to certification. The subject matter of education courses is education; not science or history or literature. Taught by professors of education, these courses add the "how" and "when" of teaching to the "what" already learned in other courses. All states now require approximately 20 semester hours of credit in education for certification.

The training of the professor of education qualifies him to make interesting comparisons between the courses of his department and those of other departments. His position is unique: He has taken more courses on the other side of the divide than on his own. From two-thirds to five-sixths of his undergraduate work, and very likely some of his graduate work, was done in departments other than education. No academic professor has had experience in *education* equal to the educator's experience in the other departments. The educator has taken many of their courses, but few of them have taken any of his.

EDUCATION SPECIALIST

The professor of education holds another important advantage: By education *and* experience, by theory *and* practice, he is a specialist in education; others specialize only in the subject matter of their departments. Teaching is not only his profession, but his subject matter as well. He is the actual practitioner of the art he teaches. The educator understands the strengths and weaknesses of the courses in education better than anyone else possibly can. He is qualified to judge teaching, and the results of his teaching are all about him every day. He knows, also, that no department has a monopoly on merit.

The facts are that good and poor courses are found everywhere. They defy attempts at classification according to department. Some courses are deadly, even in the most venerable disciplines; others are stimulating in education as well as elsewhere. No department has a monopoly on "snap" courses. The subject matter of one class is sometimes retaught in another; some college courses even repeat part of the high-school instruction. Adverse criticism of a single course in education may be valid and, if so, can be verified. Wholesale censure of all education courses is irresponsible.

The real weaknesses of professional education courses are quite unlike those alleged by the critics. The courses are neither too easy nor do they duplicate subject content excessively; in both respects they share the general characteristics of their institutions.

One of the most serious defects in teacher education is the dearth of actual classroom experience during the early courses. Too many teacher-education curriculums postpone all contact with children until the student teaching of the senior year. Too often the previous courses tell *about* children but are devoid of experiences *with* children.

Although many strong voices have been raised in favor of more and earlier experiences with children during the college years, relatively little progress has been made in adjusting the curriculums. A great deal has been said and written on this problem by professional educators—though it has scarcely been mentioned by the critics of public education.

TEACHING BY EXAMPLE

The second really serious weakness is the failure of professors of education to use in their own courses the methods they urge on future teachers. Far too many education courses consist solely of lecturing and reading the textbook, and students try to learn to teach by hearing and reading about the problems of teaching. They sit silently through lectures on the need to stimulate their pupils to take part in class discussion.

Ideally, the professor of education would announce to his students that *his* teaching of a given topic is an example of the kind of teaching he recommends for *them*. His use of a film would be a model for their subsequent use of films in the public schools, and his methods of making assignments would be demonstrations of the various methods they could later use. Likewise, each of his tests and examinations would be planned to illustrate sound testing methods as well as to evaluate the learning of his students.

If all education courses could be taught in this way, the students' observations of their instructors would enhance immeasurably the listening about teaching that is the chief activity in so much of teacher education today.

Despite all the claims that teachers today do not know enough about their subjects, failure in teaching is rarely caused by lack of academic knowledge. Numerous failures are to be expected in a profession numbering more than a million and a quarter practitioners. Unfortunately, personal traits, defects of character, or a series of unhappy coincidences may produce failure. Excellent teachers may become involved in personality clashes that prevent effective direction of learning. The fault may be one of adaptability, as in the case of one young man who could not adjust his urban attitudes to fit his teaching position in a rural area. Teachers fail for many reasons, but inadequate knowledge of subject matter is seldom one of them.

Most teachers who fail do so because they do not know *how to teach*. The most common cause of failure by far is the inability to guide students through a planned series of learning experiences. Teachers lack skill in the methods of teaching—precisely the skill that the professional courses in education were designed to develop. Teaching is complex and demanding. Those who have trained for it acquire the art in different degrees and a few of them never become very proficient in the competencies they should have learned in their professional courses. They fail in teaching because they have in some way failed in learning to teach.

The proposition that anyone who knows a subject can teach it is open to serious doubt. Knowledge of subject matter is no assurance of successful teaching, because no one can guarantee any relationships between knowledge and teaching ability. Master teachers possess both; others have little of either. Those in between represent every combination of knowledge and skill. A reasonable amount of each is essential—and adequate—for most school situations, for not everyone can be expected to become a master teacher.

The art of teaching has become so complex that the day of the "born teacher" is nearly over. There is an indispensable content of professional knowledge and skills that must be learned through disciplined study. Nor can teaching be learned satisfactorily "on the job."

Attempts to teach without command of the fundamental skills of instruction are fumbling efforts in which students and subject content are coordinated only occasionally and accidentally. The alternative to professional education for teaching is trial-and-error learning of its fundamentals at the expense of the students, and at the risk of an inevitably high percentage of failure. This type of faulty teaching is common, though not nearly as common now as it was a generation ago. It would occur much more frequently should the critics of the public schools ever succeed in destroying the design of professional teacher education, a design for which they have proposed no substitute. ●

A Recent Investigation of

Merit Rating: Past, Present, and Perhaps

JERRY B. MITCHELL

In Phi Delta Kappan

Jerry B. Mitchell is Dean, Fort Dodge Community College, Iowa. Reported from Phi Delta Kappan, *XLII (January 1961), 139–42.*

INTEREST in the evaluation of teacher performance for the determination of salaries is by no means new, but it seems to be greater now than ever before. Experimentation is being conducted in many systems and, despite unfriendly policy resolutions by most of the large teacher associations, about one in every 50 large school systems actually have some sort of merit program in operation.

Few generalizations can be made about merit rating, but a seemingly safe one is this: There has been a great deal of trial and error experimentation but very little of what could be called basic research. Merit rating remains highly controversial at least partly because no one has found solid research answers to the fundamental questions it raises.

While more research has taken place during the past 20 years than in the previous 40, there is a genuine need for additional research. Most urgent is the need for research on how to devise a sound merit program, a program of merit which is sound not only in principle but defensible to the extent that it will find general acceptance in practice.

During the last two decades, the NEA has done considerable and significant work in the area of merit rating. Particularly through the efforts of the Research Division, it has been performing a clearinghouse function with respect to writing and research.

According to the NEA Research Division, 81 of the nation's 3,805 urban school districts have what might be identified as a merit program in operation. I recently conducted an investigation of the merit programs used by these selected school districts. Forty-one districts participated.

The background and developmental findings of this survey were as follows:

Quality-of-service provisions currently in effect tend to be of recent date. One-half of 34 districts reporting had adopted merit provisions in the salary schedule within the last four years.

The merit rating programs developed primarily through professional leadership in 32 of the districts. A committee or group of teachers helped to develop the programs in approximately three out of every four districts.

At the time of proposal, the local teachers' association supported the plan in almost one-half of the districts.

The changes in attitude on the part of the teaching staff concerning merit rating were rather slight following the inauguration of the program, according to the superintendents.

The reason most frequently advanced as being important in the decision to adopt a merit program was that recognition of superior service provides one of the best avenues to the improvement of instruction.

ADMINISTRATION

Relative to administration of the merit program in the 41 selected school districts, findings were as follows:

Thirty-four presently have a formal written description of the evaluative process. Of the various plans employed to recognize quality of service, almost two-thirds of the districts have a salary schedule which includes a definite provision that superior service shall be recognized through payment of specific amounts beyond the normal salary schedule.

Building principals in 92.7 percent of the cases, and superintendents in 78.5 percent, serve in the capacity of evaluator. The evaluator is expected to visit the classroom and to observe instruction in 90.2 percent of the districts. Cumulative folders are maintained for each teacher in the system, with evaluations being kept on file in 34 of the 41 districts. In 28 of the districts, teachers are informed as to the findings of the evaluation. A personal conference is required between the evaluator and the teacher in 27 of the districts.

Out of a total of 7,448 teachers employed in the 33 largest urban districts, 1,183 were granted quality-of-service recognition according to one or more of four major types of merit-rating plans. An average of four steps are provided for superior teachers beyond those contained in the regular salary schedule for all teachers.

On the basis of information obtained from 37 selected districts, 34 percent of the teaching personnel currently receive a salary determined wholly or in part by merit considerations in addition to training and experience factors.

With respect to quality-of-service recognition, remuneration is considered as a permanent part of the teacher's salary and continues each year in addition to the annual increment in 31 of the 37 districts reporting.

The names of those receiving merit awards are not made public in 34 of the districts. Teachers are polled periodically to survey their acceptance of the plan in only 14 of the selected districts. Merit rating has been well accepted on the part of the teaching staff in over 90 percent of the districts.

EVALUATION

With respect to the evaluation and general considerations of the merit-rating programs employed in the 41 selected school districts, the findings were as follows:

Periodic attempts are made, usually by the administration, to evaluate the effectiveness of the merit plan in 23 of the 37 districts reporting. In the opinion of 30 of the superintendents, the average teacher's salary is higher than it would be had the merit program not been instituted.

Relative to evaluating the program once it was in operation, 29 of 38 superintendents felt that the program provided a valuable incentive to teachers for a high quality performance; 26 acknowledged that the program had resulted in improved instruction; 23 felt that the program had resulted in a general strengthening of the staff; and 23 noticed an improvement and a greater desire on the part of teacher personnel. Thirty-six of the superintendents reporting felt that the merit program as employed in their district has been a success.

It is expected that the merit program will be continued in 97 percent of the school districts in 1960-61, according to opinions expressed by 33 of 34 superintendents responding.

The current expense of education per pupil in average daily attendance in the selected school districts is $470.88. or 29.8 percent greater than the average per pupil on a nationwide basis.

The pupil-teacher ratio in 40 of the selected districts is approximately the same as it is for all of the nation's basic administrative units, or one for every 23 students.

The average salary for teachers, according to responses from 36 districts, is $5,909.50. The 1959-60 national average for teachers was $5,160. Thus the selected school districts currently spend 14.5 percent more on salaries than is spent at the national level.

The conclusions reached as a result of this study include the following:

1. Since all school districts studied had a merit rating program and since these programs are relatively new, it would seem logical to conclude that they have not completely demonstrated that merit rating of teachers should be accepted without further experience and study.

2. Since all school districts studied were urban and in the population range from 2,500 to 120,000, it may be that a merit rating program in either the rural communities or the larger urban communities involves a variety of problems which to date have been difficult to manage.

3. The evidence seems substantial that the definition of merit, and consequently the scope of the merit rating programs in the school districts, varies widely today. •

FOR 15 years, top scholars in the grade schools of Missoula, Mont., have had their own merit pay arrangement. A local bottling company gives free pop for good report cards—a six-bottle carton for reports rated excellent, one bottle for those rated good.

Education in a Conservative Key

The Proposals of Dr. Conant

THEODORE BRAMELD

In Teachers College Record

Theodore Brameld is Professor of Education at Boston University. Reported from Teachers College Record, *LXII (December 1960), 232–41.*

THE most quoted educator in the United States today is James Bryant Conant. His pronouncements on the state of secondary education are accepted with almost abject obeisance not only by vast numbers of laymen but by the great majority of teachers and school administrators. The appearance of his report on the junior-high schools seems destined to receive much the same recognition.

Within minority circles of our more theoretical and sophisticated students of education, however, Dr. Conant's views are often subjected to sharp questions. It is unfortunate that few if any of these dissents have touched the wider public. What little has been written of a critical nature is confined to professional journals, and what is said analytically is rarely listened to by anyone except others of like mind.

Dr. Conant's potently influential views demand searching inspection by those sections of the citizenry who profess genuine concern for perhaps the greatest of all achievements of American democracy—its free public schools.

I should like to attempt this kind of inspection from the vantage point of my own field, educational philosophy. The task is not easy, if only because Dr. Conant has never in his several books come to grips with the philosophic underpinnings of education.

If any categories of educational theory apply to Conant, eclecticism in one sense is most appropriate. His views and proposals are such a mixture of diverse theories that one suspects him of being a progressive educator in one paragraph and something different in another. Nevertheless, I believe it is possible to demonstrate that he is primarily an educational conservator whose assumptions are accordingly closer to those of the essentialist theory than to those of any other. This theory, stripped to its bare bones, centers in the doctrine that the main purpose of education is to reinforce and perpetuate the social heritage.

As such, the largest share of Conant's proposals not only prove to be unsuitable to the culture in which we live, but they become a roadblock in the path of imperative reconstruction. For, with the generous backing of the powerful Carnegie Corporation, he has convinced vast audiences that no important changes are needed. His most "radical" proposal is to reduce the number of small high schools in favor of consolidated ones. "Aside from this important change," he frankly declares, "I believe no radical alteration in the basic pattern of education is necessary in order to improve our schools."

To be assured by the former president of a great university that nothing is seriously wrong and most things quite all right with American education is dangerously soporific at the precise time when critical alertness on the part of citizens is more imperative than in any period since the founding of the public-school system.

FOUR DEFECTS

I select four major defects in Conant's educational thought. The first defect embraces, directly or indirectly, each of the others. The Conant plan for the high school fails to provide for anything like the kind of curriculum now demanded by our "divided world." Conant recognizes in his various writings the troubled nature of our period. Yet the only recommended provision for dealing with it systematically is in the senior year through a required course on "American problems," and even here a choice is permitted so that the alternative course in American government could easily be taught so as to avoid "problems" completely. Nor is Conant sure that social studies should be required for all four years; three might be enough, two of them in history.

If one grants, as Conant himself at moments grants, that we live in a world where complacency is above all to be avoided, where "foreign policy requires at least as much study" as "internal political and social history," then the social studies should occupy a much more strategic place in the curriculum than he proposes. Problems of human existence, extending all the way from the personal to the planetary, should galvanize the treatment of all other subjects—not only history, but science and language as well.

For Conant to assert that "Formal study of . . . economics, political theory, psychology, sociology . . . must be reserved for college work and probably restricted to only certain types of colleges . . ." is thus to abrogate the first responsibility of secondary education. I contend that formal treatment of these fields is much more appropriate in the high school. Many young people will never again have opportunity, *under expert guidance*, to deal with matters that are of extreme intrinsic and urgent concern to them as they move up to the plane of citizenship and parenthood.

The second defect stems from the first. Conant supports a curriculum structure that almost totally disregards recent psychological and sociological research as to the interrelated character of human experience. He thus ignores learning as a major dimension of such experience. Although a natural scientist, Conant does not seem to have perceived that the "field theory" now dominant in physics is increasingly recognized by advanced students of the behavioral sciences as comparably appropriate to the study of man.

The structure he endorses reflects, on the contrary, the highly atomistic and mechanistic premises of a Newtonian philosophy of science. In everyday language, Conant's curriculum, like that in the vast majority of high schools today, reminds one of an egg crate—a boxed-in series of cubicles divided from each other by artificial walls.

In one important respect, his structure points in a modern direction. In his advocacy of the comprehensive high school, Conant opposes the divisive, constrictive proposals of Admiral Rickover and others of like persuasion. Interestingly, he refers to those who want to copy the class-layered European model of secondary education as "radical reformers," although they are the antithesis of radical in any precise sense.

In another respect, Conant moves back toward an even more atomistic curriculum than currently prevails. In order to provide room for the election of music, art, and practical courses, he proposes that the number of periods per day be increased from six to seven or eight, even though this means a still shorter daily period for each subject. The effect is to subdivide the learner's time into still more egg-crate cubicles. No hint of a suggestion is found that the number of periods per day ought to be *reduced* rather than increased—that the need is for larger rather than smaller blocks of learning through integrated, "field" approaches to the problems of human beings.

REQUIRED COURSES

A third cluster of difficulties emerges from Conant's required courses for all students. There is no rationale for the allocation of courses, or the designation of equivalent courses.

For example, in the requirement of four years of English, Conant insists that about half the time should be devoted to English composition. A justification for such an allocation is never clearly stated. No one denies that ample practice in writing is desirable, but why is no allocation of time provided for ample practice in speaking? Nor does Conant ever inquire whether English can be effectively taught so long as composition, speaking, foreign language, or any other of the communication arts is divorced from the social studies, from the natural sciences, and from all remaining areas of a thoroughly integrated high-school education.

One may be concerned, also, not merely for what Conant includes in his general requirements but equally for what he does not include. Art and music, for example, are "urged" as electives, but nowhere in *The American High School Today* does he require even one general course embracing the major literary, graphic, musical, and other arts.

TALENTED EMPHASIS

Finally, Conant is deeply concerned with the academically talented minority—so much so that one wonders whether it is not his *chief* concern. At any rate, his insistence that most high schools fail to lift this minority to the levels of achievement of which it is capable is undoubtedly correct.

When, however, we consider his program to effect such an objective, we ought to be skeptical. Why, for example, does Conant assume that four years of mathematics and four years of a foreign language are the primary measures of academic talent? If it is because standardized tests of ability are largely geared to these two fields, then one may ask whether it is not the standardized tests—themselves largely based on mechanistic psychologies of learning—that should first be questioned. Yet, Conant is unequivocal: "If the counselor becomes convinced that a student is having difficulty with one or the other subject (mathematics or foreign language), he should then decide the student is not academically talented."

This is an incredible statement. Are we then to infer that there is no such thing as academic talent in the arts? Is there no such thing as academic talent in the human sciences? Conant cannot, of course, deny that there is. It is true that the sharply bounded provisions for these areas in his conventional curriculum do not encourage the discovery of whatever such talents are potential in them.

The fault here lies not in the promise inherent in able young people, but in the recommended curriculum—a vicious circle of constriction on the great range of talents needed by the world.

By virtually compelling the academically talented minority into elective sequences of mathematics, science, and foreign languages beginning in the freshman year, students are likely to be guided prematurely toward the kind of career for which these subjects, especially the first two, are directly beneficial. Whether further maturation on the part of the students might develop talents, interests, and values in quite different directions is, therefore, much more difficult to determine than if the range of electives were wider and more flexible.

Let me end, however, on a positive note. Dr. Conant does not wish us to believe that he is "in favor of freezing the development of the curriculum or the organization of the high school." He does urge experimentation. He does see great need for more research by the behavioral sciences in education. I plead with him, therefore, to follow through, to lend his great prestige and earnestness to the task of thorough rebuilding that now lies ahead. •

Who Is a Good Teacher?

DONALD W. ROBINSON

In The Clearing House

"I JUST can't stand that Mr. Smith! He's the only teacher I don't like."

"Smith? He's my favorite. I think he's wonderful."

These typical student evaluations might closely resemble adult reactions, including administrators' ratings. Many a teacher has failed in one school, moved on to another system, and been accepted as a superior teacher.

Paradoxically, the superior teacher can sometimes be clearly recognized, sometimes not. On a faculty of 50 teachers, perhaps five or 10 will be such paragons that by common consent they are recognized as strong teachers. Another five or 10 might be accepted as being on the weak side—adequate, but with certain clearly defined deficiencies. At least 30 remain, well over half of the faculty, unclassifiable.

The reason, of course, is that teaching is such a personal thing. Success hinges on personality, and personality defies objective measurement.

The problem of defining and describing those qualities that exist in a superior teacher may never be answered to everyone's satisfaction, but certainly some of the qualities that must be present are identifiable.

Strong teachers must indeed be intellectually capable, but does this mean they should be the most brilliant minds obtainable? A high school staffed with only the most brilliant minds would not likely be the best high school.

Try to imagine Rockwell Kent or Bertrand Russell, William O. Douglas or Albert Einstein, Pablo Picasso, John Dewey, or Werner von Braun teaching in a public school. Or, an American community allowing them to teach very long. Unfortunately, really large minds are often too upsetting for many communities. There is a sense in which the public does demand, if not mediocrity, at least a substantial acceptance of normal, moderate views. A truly brilliant mind is rather apt to be too inquiring a mind for some parents to entrust their offspring to.

Certainly, a high degree of intellectual capability is necessary, but for a math teacher to cope with the idiosyncracies of 150 different adolescents and to get them to learn math up to the level of their capacities requires a great deal more of him than a knowledge

Donald W. Robinson lives in San Francisco, California. Reported from The Clearing House, *XXXV (February 1961), 323–25.*

of math. In this respect, it is difficult to overemphasize the importance of emotional maturity in the teacher.

At the elementary level, the ability to secure emotional rapport is paramount. At the college level, scholarly accomplishment counts more. In the crucial years between, the high-school teacher must be superior in both realms, the interpersonal know-how and the academic competence. Adolescents are too much children and too much adults to thrive on anything less than the dual proficiency.

FLEXIBLE PERSONALITY

Aside from the principles of learning, the psychology and the methods, and aside from a thorough knowledge of subject matter, the teacher's greatest asset will be a flexible personality. The more elastic and understanding his temperament, the closer he can come to reaching and teaching all his students. The more rigid he is, the fewer he will reach.

The excellent teacher is usually the one who is demanding without appearing to be. He is interested, understanding, and sympathetic, but still maintains good discipline and high standards. One teacher's personality is such that he will emphasize the disciplined virtues of punctuality, precision, and thoroughness. Another will exemplify and extol the values of tolerance, open-mindedness, perspective, and freedom, at the relative neglect of the first set of values. So-called conservative values and so-called liberal values are equally valid and equally essential, but it is impossible for any one teacher to exemplify the whole range of social values.

A faculty can, and should, represent the entire spectrum, including teachers whose convictions range from cautious conservative to robust rebels, whose personalities range from the quiet permissive to the raucous egocentric. The "good" teacher may be anywhere along the spectrum. A thorough sampling of superior teachers would disclose that they are distributed among liberals and conservatives, and include as many "progressive" teachers as "traditional." I have never known a teacher who was superior because he was permissive or because he was authoritarian.

It is important for a teacher to know where he stands with respect to educational, political, and social philosophy; too many teachers do not. Whether this is an increasing number is impossible to say, but the number of placid classroom technicians without feeling or concern for larger issues seems large. This condition is so generally accepted that a teacher expressing an interest in basic philosophies is apt to be asked, "What are you doing here? Why aren't you teaching in college?" The implication is that competence and alertness are considered out of place in a public high school.

The teacher must be serious and

superior—but not too serious and not too superior.

The once-common restrictions on the private life of a teacher were clear expressions of an expectation that the teacher will exemplify all that is proper and respected. It is still true, though on a different level, that the teacher must always satisfy the local image of what a good teacher should be. A community that extols the service-club type of solidarity expects the superior teacher to be a joiner and a booster as well as a good teacher. The community that accents religious life will tend to expect its good teachers to be active in church work.

The most important trait a teacher can impart is a love for learning, a love which can be imparted only by one who possesses it. It is axiomatic that the effective teacher will remain an active learner.

There is no existing single word to convey the meaning of superb "teachership" in the way that "leadership" expresses the combination of qualities necessary for the successful figure in public life, or as "enterprise" describes it for the business leader, and as "command" for the military leader. "Scholarship" is too limited a word and is more appropriate for the college professor than for the high-school teacher. Scholarship is a most laudable pursuit but as high schools are administered today it is completely unreasonable to expect that every high-school teacher will engage in research. The good teacher does not have time to do a good teaching job and to keep well informed regarding the world about him, let alone attempting serious research.

We are left then with describing the superior teacher as being intelligent, flexible, well educated in the subject he is to teach, eager to learn and eager to teach, and in tune with his community. In addition, he should have the advantages of knowing all that is known about teaching. This will spare him and his students the trial-and-error ordeal of learning what teachers have always found to be true. Good training in education courses can equip him with a knowledge of recent discoveries about teaching as well as those rare bits of ancient wisdom only the most insightful learned in the past.

These qualities and many more in endless variation will be found in all those teachers rated superior.

Because we care about providing the best possible learning for all children, we cannot accept the notion that knowledge of the subject alone is enough to make a good teacher, or even almost enough. •

YOU can't give character to another person, but you can encourage him to develop one by possessing one yourself.—*Survey Bulletin.*

Vandalism

In The Nation's Schools

SCHOOLS have to take a small part of the blame for vandalism to school property, according to the majority of respondents to a recent opinion poll conducted by *The Nation's Schools.*

Thirty-seven percent of the participating administrators consider the school responsible to a *minor degree;* another 37 percent hold the school accountable for *very little* of the vandalism.

Who else, then, or what else, is responsible?

Many say that parents must accept a large share of the blame. One California superintendent's response was, "Although the schools can instill respect for property in most students, I believe that home training, or lack of it, is the basis for most of the difficulty." Another California respondent agreed that the school has a great influence on the child, but said: "It has very limited influence on patterns of behavior, which are so often set before the child enters school."

The testimony of a superintendent from Montana contains implications for the home: "In our farming community, the students, almost without exception, have definite responsibilities at home. They work hard to contribute to the family welfare, and the training seems to carry over to their behavior at school."

The *nature* of children seems to prompt vandalism in some instances, one small group contends. "Some students do things just to show that they can get by with something," was a response from Colorado. "Vandalism in schools about which I have any firsthand information was a spur of the moment idea rather than a planned act," was the reply from a Minnesota administrator.

A New York school man names the double standard of society in general as being responsible. "That honesty is correct in theory but not in practice seems to be basic, particularly where the public owns the property. 'Anything goes' seems to be the American way," he said.

A California superintendent maintains that vandalism is the result of emotional difficulty on the part of students. "Insofar as the school has not recognized this, or made an attempt to change the child's method of dealing with frustration, to that extent is it guilty or responsible for the vandalism that may result," he said.

Reported from The Nation's Schools, *LXVI (December 1960)*, 55–92.

"I feel that the public school does have a responsibility in regard to vandalism in school, in that part of our duty is to instill in the minds of all pupils a genuine respect for all property, both public and private," contends a Missouri respondent.

Also, an Indiana administrator, though not blaming the school itself for vandalism, declares that a cause for it is that, "our schools and our classrooms are getting too large in numbers, and a student, instead of being a personality, is gradually becoming a number assigned to a certain seat."

Another direct attack on the school comes from a respondent in Kansas, who holds the school responsible to a degree for not punishing offenders quickly and justly. This schoolman asserts: "Punishment itself does not prevent wrong acts, but certainty of punishment will eventually prevent them."

Only 6 percent of the respondents would say that schools are "primarily" responsible for vandalism. Seventeen percent maintained that the school "is not at all" responsible. Among that 17 percent were some administrators who commented that they did not have the problem of vandalism. Others in this group that acquitted the school of responsibility would charge parents with it.

Though administrators differ as to who should be blamed for vandalism, 95 percent of them agree that the law should hold parents responsible for the damage their children do to schools. A Kansas man argues: "At times, it seems that the purse is the best way to gain necessary attention on the part of persons."

An Indiana respondent contends that "the children who do the damage normally come from homes where it would be impossible to hold parents responsible for damages. Some will not even pay for books and supplies."

The suggestion of a Vermont administrator may be an answer to the problem of paying for vandalism. He proposes: "Schools need to have proper insurance against vandalism to ensure adjustment over and beyond what any parent could afford."

An administrator from California reported that there had been no instances of vandalism in his school for the last eight years. Recently, the school was entered and the office safe damaged. The day after the break-in, that superintendent found the questionnaire on vandalism in his morning mail. •

IT is a shocking fact that some adults may not want to see juvenile delinquency disappear. Well-behaved men and women may find in the escapades of delinquents vicarious thrills and secret satisfactions.—*William C. Kvaraceus.*

It Should Not Be Ignored or Blocked

The New Technology

JAMES D. FINN and ELINOR RICHARDSON

In The National Elementary Principal

WHAT about these teaching machines? Will television replace teachers?

Technology with a capital "T" is now the educational topic of conversation, replacing group dynamics, psychological testing, selective reading, and next year's salary schedule.

Technology, in an advanced technical society such as ours, has a tendency to extend constantly into new areas. It is inevitable that it should begin to extend into the instructional process. This is particularly true when education has been, for a century or more, one of the areas of American society which has walled itself off from technological advances and, consequently, has created a technological vacuum. That vacuum is now rapidly being filled.

Three trends can be seen when the instructional technology of 1961 is viewed as a whole. They are: the development of a technology of mass instruction, the development of a technology of individual instruction, and the development of instructional systems.

MASS INSTRUCTION

The first trend began years ago with the exploitation of conventional audio-visual devices, such as films, filmstrips, and recordings, which can be used with large groups of students under certain circumstances. Presently, the trend toward a mass instructional technology is governed by a large and expanding group of machines and systems. Television is foremost in the public eye.

James D. Finn is Professor of Education and Chairman, Department of Audio-Visual Education, University of Southern California, Los Angeles. Elinor Richardson is a consultant in the Division of Audio-Visual Education, Los Angeles County Schools, California. Reported from The National Elementary Principal, *XL (January 1961), 18–22.*

There are four instructional types of television: broadcast on an educational channel; broadcast on a commercial channel; closed-circuit, in which live instructors are used either to supplement instruction or to provide direct instruction exclusive of classroom teachers; and the type in which filmed lectures are distributed via the closed-circuit medium as replacement for classroom teachers.

At the beginning of this school year, there were about 50 educational television stations, several more under construction, approximately 300 closed-circuit installations, and two cities—Oklahoma City and Pittsburgh—with two educational television stations each.

At present, Alabama and Oklahoma have educational television networks in operation. Florida is nearing completion of a state network, and state networks in Texas and Ohio are being planned. Several regional networks are in the planning stage.

The activity in other areas of educational television includes: The Midwest Council on Airborne Television plans to telecast 72 courses from an aircraft flying over Indiana to 13,000 schools in five states; 200 school systems in 15 states are involved in an experiment with television being conducted by the Fund for the Advancement of Education; in Galveston, Texas, eight elementary schools and the administration building have been equipped with two-way closed-circuit television for experimental purposes. (With camera and receiver at both ends of the line, in each classroom, it is possible to have two-way communication.)

MASSED FILM SYSTEMS

Mass instructional technology in another form includes the massed film systems. The prime example is the EBF series in physics and chemistry, amounting to over 300 half-hour motion pictures designed to assist in filling the need for more and better science instruction. The exploitation of the overhead transparency projector is another example of mass instructional technology.

INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

In seeming opposition to this trend of mass instruction is a growing technology for individual instruction. The most dramatic development here is that class of systems and instruments known as teaching-machines. Actually, there are several classes of equipment designed for individual or near-individual operation. We list them here on an ascending scale of sophistication: individual reading pacers and similar devices; individual viewing and listening equipment for existing slides, filmstrips, motion pictures, and recordings; language laboratories of all types; specifically programed printed materials such as scrambled textbooks, programmed textbooks, etc.; and true teaching machines of the Skinner and Pressey type.

There are many types and varieties of true teaching machines. The device *per se* is not important except as a vehicle for the program, which is the heart of the auto-instructional concept.

The content to be taught is analyzed and developed into a program. Programs are designed taking into account a theory of learning, the nature of the student for whom the program is being designed, the subject matter involved, and the capabilities of the particular machine, if one is to be used. Perhaps the foremost theory of programing in vogue among research workers today is one which requires that the student construct his own response.

In addition to the machines, there are two kinds of textual materials available that make use of programing concepts. One is the programed textbook, in which the items are presented much as in a construction machine with the answer usually on the page following the item.

The scrambled textbook introduces the branching technique to the programing concept. The student begins and, after some instruction, works a problem with a multiple-choice answer. Each of the choices directs him to a different page in the book. If he is correct, he finds more instruction and another problem on the page he turns to. If incorrect, he is directed to a different series of pages depending on the nature of his error. Both textbooks are different from the traditional workbook and should not be confused with them.

While teaching machines and the programing concepts they represent are not yet widely used, or even widely available, they have moved from what might be called the laboratory phase into the field testing phase.

INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEMS

It was inevitable that both educational researchers and inventors would begin to deal with the problem of combining the technology of mass instruction with the technology of individual instruction. Their efforts at combination are taking the following forms: A system of television films combined with programed textbooks and combining television film instruction with teaching machine programing; an instructional package concept in which filmstrips, recordings, demonstration materials, books, and a teacher's manual which is really a "program" in that it suggests the instructional program quite carefully; and an effort to create deliberately a whole instructional system. The Physical Science Study Committee at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology is currently engaged in developing such a whole instructional system in physics. Here, a new physics textbook, supplementary paperback books, a manual of experiments, a manual on how to build apparatus, 80 motion pictures, and other materials are being experimented with as an instructional system programed in a teacher's manual.

In the preceding paragraphs we have been concerned with the current realities of the technological revolution in education. On the horizon are many other inventions and ideas—8mm sound motion pictures that can be projected or used in an individual reader, new systems of videotape recording, new ideas for audio-visual teaching machines, exciting new ways to use the telephone to bring resources to the school, and even experiments with computers as teaching machines and Buck Rogers types of automated classrooms.

What are the implications of this technological revolution to the elementary - school administration and faculty? We would like to emphasize that an attitude of open-minded inquiry, buttressed by solid knowledge, is basic. Emotional reaction to the concept of innovation is hardly a professional attitude. We–teachers, administrators, and consultants–should not be "for" or "against" teaching machines and other technological developments. We should be for the best learning possible for the most children with the least time and effort. We need every tool and system that we can use to achieve our stated goals.

This means, to us, that these fascinating possibilities of the future should neither be ignored nor blocked. Educational technology will not go away. Principals and teachers should take an active part in developing and shaping the new instructional technology. In this way, teaching (and administration) can become a true profession. If this technology grows wildly, uncultivated, and with its seed coming from the outside, we surrender professional leadership. If we work with it, use it to make education better and more humane, we will be doing our job. •

- If you don't have a gadget called a teaching machine, don't get one. If you have such a gadget, get rid of it. The so-called teaching machine is a disease.–*Thomas G. Gilbert*, University of Alabama.
- Sidney L. Pressey, who marketed the first teaching machine more than 30 years ago, favors injecting some "fun" into machine learning by letting two students compare their performances as they go along–a sort of tandem arrangement. He said he made a mistake when he incorporated one "fun" feature in an early machine he invented. It rewarded the student with candy for a correct answer, so people laughed at his "candy" machine.
- Program writing for teaching machines is much more difficult than textbook writing. Good writers are difficult to find. Two of the best program writers I have worked with are newspaper men.–*Norman A. Crowder*, Goleta, Calif.
- Television is an appliance which changes children from irresistible forces into immovable objects.–*The Philadelphia Principal.*
- Life is easier to take than you think. All that is necessary is to accept the impossible, do without the indispensable, and bear the intolerable.–*Kathleen Norris.*

Reading Research That Makes a Difference

DAVID H. RUSSELL

In Elementary English

IT is a peculiarly American custom to select "the best ten" or "one hundred best" individuals or products. This article selects the "best ten" examples of reading research, not because they are most valuable in all situations, but in response to the challenge of a superintendent of schools who said to me, "You university people are always talking about ways research should influence teaching . . . When did research ever influence the teaching of reading?"

At the time, my answer to the skeptical superintendent was not as complete as I should have liked, so as a result of thinking over his challenge, I list here more fully 10 studies which have widely influenced reading instruction over the years. Because most of the researches are well known, I describe their methods and results only briefly.

The first of the classic studies is the series of investigations by G. T. Buswell and C. H. Judd, made at the University of Chicago around 1920. These are examples of "basic" research in education—studies which may be regarded as "pure," as discovery of knowledge for its own sake, but studies which had great influence in showing the advantages of silent over oral reading and which illustrated the differential nature of the reading act.

The analyses destroyed the notion that reading is a unitary activity. Instead, they suggested that reading skills differ with different purposes and materials. Accordingly, wise teachers began to help the child learn to read for a variety of purposes and using different kinds of printed matter.

A second memorable study was the investigation of errors in paragraph comprehension made by E. L. Thorndike in 1917. This was an example of applied research. In an area which took oral teaching of reading for granted, Thorndike clearly showed differences between mouthing words and understanding meaning. He likened the process of reading a paragraph to that of solving a problem or combining dispersed ideas into a related whole.

By illustrating the wide variety of errors children made in the com-

David H. Russell is Professor of Education, University of California, Berkeley. Reported from Elementary English, XXXVIII (*February 1961*), *74–78.*

prehension of a relatively simple paragraph, Thorndike demonstrated the need for instruction in getting meaning from the printed page. He also raised the issue of causes of misunderstanding and attributed it in part to the overpotency of certain words, thus foreshadowing some recent psychological work on individual perceptions.

A third classic publication, related to Thorndike's study, was a teaching study which helped provide teachers with concrete materials they could use in place of the common oral attack of that day. This was the investigation described in A. I. Gates' *New Methods in Primary Reading*.

In this study, Gates did not toss phonics out the window, as sometimes claimed, but he did show the importance of visual techniques and a method he called "intrinsic" in getting meanings of words and sentences. Such a study led directly to a revolution in teaching materials and in methods which combined a variety of ways for children to recognize words.

Like his study of primary methods and materials, Gates' *The Improvement of Reading* is a report of a number of experiments with diagnostic material. It represents not only a fresh concept in the scientific study of reading but was among the first major investigations in a long list of researches on diagnostic and remedial activities.

The point of view in *The Improvement of Reading* is that most reading retardation and disability are not explained by vague, blanket terms, such as "laziness" or "low intelligence" or "bad attitude," but are the result of a group or syndrome of specific, related factors which must be diagnosed exactly.

The Improvement of Reading contained a battery of diagnostic tests which have been extended by different authors in numerous books and articles on diagnostic and remedial activities. The present-day reading clinic is one example of the diagnostic approach to educational problems, a concept exemplified in Gates' pioneer work.

READING INTERESTS

A fifth classic in the field of reading investigation was the book on children's reading interests prepared by L. M. Terman and Margaret Lima. *Children's Reading*, reinforced by some of the educational theories of the day, helped provide a basis for the concept of developmental reading. Terman and Lima discovered the typical interests of boys and girls at various age levels and showed how these changed from preschool through early adolescent years. Accordingly, they not only provided some basis for the selection of children's literature at various ages, but they also helped evolve a dynamic concept of children's reading.

The sixth study is an example of the historical method of research. Nila B. Smith's *American Reading*

Instruction illustrates the long gradual development of methods and practice which are a basis for what teachers do in classrooms today.

For nearly 300 years, and dating back at least to the alphabet method and theological content of the *New England Primer*, devoted teachers have worked to help their students read accurately and efficiently. Smith's historical survey has given considerable confidence to all persons concerned with reading instruction in what they do and what they advocate.

The methods and materials in use today are not based on the personal opinion of some textbook author or school principal, nor on the whim of an individual teacher. Rather, they are the result of generations of trial in classrooms from colonial to modern times. Smith's study, which should be extended into the last 25 years, can and does provide a background against which current criticisms of teaching can be measured and a basis established for continued research in methods and materials.

A seventh study opened up a new field for evaluation of reading materials rather than influencing classroom teaching methods. This was W. S. Gray and Bernice Leary's *What Makes a Book Readable*. Their formula for measuring the level of difficulty of printed materials has since been simplified by Lorge and other useful formulas developed by Dale-Chall, Flesch, nd Spache. Such work still requires extension into measures of concept difficulty and density. It is influencing the writing of textbooks and other materials and makes possible some matching of pupil ability and reading materials to challenge it.

PHONICS RESEARCH

The role of phonics in reading instruction suggests that research on the topic should be included in any list of "best ten." Unfortunately, no investigation in this area can be labelled "definitive." One of several worthy of mention is the D. C. Agnew study made in 1939, not because it answered all questions about phonics, but because it combined several methods of attack and because it attempted to solve a complex instructional problem, one that some researchers, prophets, and charlatans have attempted to oversimplify ever since.

In general, the Agnew study suggests that there are both advantages and disadvantages in emphasizing phonics methods. It is included as a representative of a group of studies which gave careful leads to the use of phonics.

The ninth study on the list was selected only after much difficult deliberation. In terms of impact, however, the vote goes to Ruth Strang for a series of studies and publications which clearly pointed to the need for developmental reading instruction in secondary schools and colleges. The first edition of *Problems in the Improvement of Reading in High School* *and College* collated the scattered work in the field up to 1937 and *Explorations in Reading Patterns* extended the interest in reading habits from adolescence into adulthood.

Strang's work helped develop the strong current interest in reading in the post-elementary years and began some study of the relationships of reading interest to other patterns of response to reading materials, an area in which the research is only beginning.

The last study in the "ten best" list is easy to select, not because its impact has yet been great, but because it points the way to important future developments. It is W. S. Gray's *The Teaching of Reading and Writing*. This is a survey done for Unesco in 1956 of methods of instruction in reading and writing around the world. Our methods of study in comparative education are not well developed, but the Gray description points to world-wide problems in literacy, in types of language, and in adaption of instruction to the nature of the language.

It is worth noting that each of the mentioned studies was closely connected to the problems of its day. For example, the laboratory studies by Buswell and Judd gave basic data about a little known process in the days psychology was beginning as a science. The impact of the Thorndike and Gates studies can be understood only when one realizes that reading instruction of that day was almost completely oral. The Terman study coincided with some phases of the Progressive Education movement. The Agnew study dealt with a problem which is still concerning primary and intermediate-grade teachers and the Gray survey, whose impact is still to be felt, came in a day when the United States was beginning to take an interest in the social and educational welfare of the under-developed nations of the world.

Each of these ten studies had impact because they were closely related to the context in which they were made. As we look to the future we must also ask: What is relevant and pressing?

Research in reading has influenced, and will influence, practice. Research can "make a difference." •

• "JOHNNY," said the teacher to the eight-year-old, "bring your reader. We are going to read." Johnny brought his reader, sat down, fumbled through the pages uncertainly, and asked, "What channel?"—From *The Educational Courier*.

• A third-grade teacher recently intercepted the following note: "Dear Judy. I luv you. Do you luv me? Jimmy."

"Dear Jimmy. I do *not* luv you. Luv, Judy."—From *Mississippi Educational Advance*.

Training for the Past or Educating for the Future?

Good Reasons for Doing Nothing

EDGAR DALE

In The News Letter

ONCE a professor friend of mine flatly opposed a certain faculty action. A somewhat cynical friend of his later gave him this advice: "Don't oppose things directly. Use an oblique approach. You ought to know by this time that smart people in churches, in politics, or on college faculties are not *against* a proposal, especially a forward-looking one. They are *for* the proposal, but there are 'good' reasons why it should not be put into effect now."

It is interesting to speculate on the "why" of reasons for doing nothing. Coupled with possible loss of advantage is the fear of change —the necessity for leaving the comfortable, though not entirely satisfactory, routines of the present and substituting for them the hazardous, decision-making activities of the future. Many dread the thought of insecurity, of reorganizing their habit patterns. New learning is not relished. We don't like to be nudged out of the nest.

In trying to avoid insecurity and reorganization, here are a few of the ways in which we avoid or evade action. Perhaps by looking at them we may see our evasions for what they really are, simple rationalizations, often with little reasonable basis They are *apparent* reasons—not the *real* ones.

Edgar Dale is Professor of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, and Editor of The News Letter. *Reported from* The News Letter, *published by The Ohio State University Bureau of Educational Research, XXVI (December 1960), 1–4.*

One of the reasons for opposing change is that *the proposal would set a precedent.* No one has yet figured out how to make changes without setting precedents, but stating the argument in this way makes it sound convincing. What we mean is: "If we take this action, we must do some hard thinking about it. We may have to discard some of our comfortable routines and develop some new ones." For persons who are "psychologically barricaded" against new ideas, this is a dismaying challenge.

We don't like to set precedents. In a university, for example, we say that if we stretch a rule for one student, then another student will expect the same treatment. Furthermore, if we go beyond the easily and mechanically interpreted rule, we shall have to think. To think means to be uncomfortable. And we forget that justice is our goal, not smooth, comfortable machinery.

The reverse side of the objection is: *There is no precedent to guide us; therefore, we cannot act on the suggested proposal.* How anything new ever gets started must remain a mystery to all who use this objection.

A second reason given for doing nothing is that *we have not yet conclusively proved that the old method can't be made to work or that the proposed new one can.* Thus if one year of a college or high-school subject gives disappointing results, then by all means let us try two years before we carefully study the methods and content of current courses. Anyway, how do we know whether the new method will work? Before we do anything, let us get all the facts. Let us make a survey.

Certainly, we do need research and we do need surveys. But it is one of the hazards and adventures of life to break new ground. The advocates of absolute certainty will live dull and circumscribed lives. But many of our necessary actions involve unproved hypotheses, leaps not into the dark but certainly into the dim light. And further, let's spend our research funds on clearly doubtful issues and avoid studies in areas where informed individuals readily agree on what needs to be done or where sufficient data already exist on which to carry out exploratory action.

JUST ANOTHER FAD

A third way to evade responsibility for study and action is to label a proposal as *another fad.* The critic then goes on to suggest that perhaps this new method will go the way of the socialized recitation, the activity method, or the project method. Perhaps it will. None of these methods did what some of their overenthusiastic supporters thought they would. No educational methods do. But these methods developed out of a real need, a need not yet met, that of interrelating and integrating knowledge, of making schools functional and purposive, of tying theory to practice.

Actually there have been few fads in education. There have been innovations which did not fulfill the high hopes of their promoters—but isn't this to be expected? If you want to get experience, you must experiment.

TIME NOT RIPE

A fourth reason for doing nothing is that *the time is not ripe.* We may admit that the suggested proposal is soundly based and forward-looking, but maintain that teachers or the public are not yet ready for it. So we must wait. But for what? Shall we sit and watch time ripen?

Time itself doesn't ripen, but people's ideas and ideals do. In one sense, time wasn't ripe for the wheel, the cart, the automobile, or the airplane. By definition, an invention is ahead of its time.

Indeed, technology seems to be constantly widening the gap between people's needs and their ability to meet them. We produce ideas faster than we can distribute them. There is real danger that men who do not understand these new ideas may become resigned to comfortable ignorance and accept authoritarian solutions.

After all, isn't it the job of the schools, the press, and broadcasting to enlighten, to build a common denominator of understanding, to ripen time, to ripen our willingness to accept innovation?

IT IS HOPELESS

A fifth reason for doing nothing is that *the situation is hopeless*. We can point out that smarter people than we have struggled with the problem and failed to come up with a solution. We can paint a picture of the high chance of failure and the meager chance of success.

But it is the weak man, not the strong man, who wants absolute certainty. It is the essence of leadership not only to live successfully with uncertainty, but also to be challenged by it, to experience its hazards and excitements, to know that the game is being played for high stakes, not for peanuts.

Further, the situation may not be hopeless. We like to so label it because then our consciences are relieved. You wouldn't expect us to do anything about a hopeless situation, would you? Certainly the world situation does not call for bland optimism which mistakenly assumes that everything will turn out all right. Nor does it merit the corrosive pessimism that nothing can be done about it.

Sixth, we object to a proposed action on the grounds that *we can't afford it*. A school board member, arriving late, heard the other members discussing the desirability of building a new curriculum and interrupted with these good reasons for doing nothing: "First of all, the old one is good enough. Second, we couldn't afford it even if we needed it. And finally, where could we get any land to build it on."

We can afford better schools and colleges if we can get favorable answers to these questions: Will it be a good investment? Will it increase personal and social efficiency? Will it help us become more productive, heighten national morale, enable us to work toward the democratic goals to which we are committed? If we deeply desire quality education, we shall find a just way to provide adequate tax support.

A seventh good reason for doing nothing about a problem is that *it is a controversial issue*. The term is redundant. Any important issue is controversial. A call for serious, informed controversy on critical problems does not mean that we should butt our heads against a stone wall when we ought better walk around it. But if there are no major controversies gripping the attention of a school, a college, or a business, then that institution is dying—training for the past, not educating for the future. •

Spare the Rod and Spoil/Save the Child?

ARTHUR A. EISENSTADT

In Grade Teacher

PERHAPS no aspect of classroom management has drawn more heated discussion in recent years than the question of corporal punishment. The conventional case against it includes the arguments that it is cruel, old-fashioned, more conducive to fear and repression than to respect and virtue, and that punishment can never be synonymous with correction. Its defenders reply that corporal punishment worked very well in the past, that growing parental laxity makes it more necessary than ever, and that without it, the teacher is seriously hampered in trying to carry on the process of education.

Here in England, where the writer has spent the past year as a Fulbright teacher, corporal punishment seems to pose no problem, at least on the surface. It is simply regarded as a suitable and respectable disciplinary measure, and has been so regarded for centuries.

In my older son's grammar school—and of the three kinds of secondary schools, this type attracts the most serious-minded – "caning," "slippering" and "knuckle-rapping" are fairly common occurrences. In secondary modern or technical schools, I am told, it is even more frequent.

The regulations indicate that corporal punishment is not meant to be used freely or indiscriminately. Only the headmaster, in the privacy of his office, usually is supposed to administer the cane. Infrequently, an older teacher may do so with the headmaster standing by as a witness. Such incidents are expected to be entered in a punishments or attendance book, which may be examined by board members or by Her Majesty's Inspectors.

In some areas, there is a ruling that no classroom teacher may administer physical punishment before completing three years of teaching service. This would suggest that such disciplinary action is not to be taken except where mature and experienced judgment sanctions its use. In practice, however, these restrictions seem to be honored more in their breach than in their observance.

Arthur A. Eisenstadt was a Fulbright Teacher in England when he wrote this article. Reported from Grade Teacher, *LXXVIII (February 1961), 11, 78, 80.*

How do the teachers feel about corporal punishment? "Well, when all the other masters use corporal punishment, if you don't go along, too, you've had it," was one teacher's answer. Another schoolmaster said, "For some youngsters, a quiet explanation is sufficient, and for others a firm talking-to will do the job. But every so often, you get the lad who is utterly unmoved by explanations, reprimands, or promises of punishment should he misbehave again. That's the chap who needs the cane." Still another replied, "Some of these blokes don't seem to understand anything but a clomping, so you just have to give them a clomp."

When asked if they considered corporal punishment to be a good idea, the younger children and those at a school for slow students felt that it was entirely proper. One boy commented, "When you've done something bad, then something bad should be done to you."

The older children were not so ready to give approval. For various reasons, nearly all agreed that it neither corrected the offender nor deterred him from future offenses. The views were expressed that the boys who were so punished were generally the same boys, time after time. They were the kind of boys on whom the punishment made no physical or mental impression, and many boys were inclined to swagger about the notoriety achieved or the manly way they took their penalty.

Perhaps the most cogent observation came from a 14-year-old grammar-school boy. "You can't admire or respect a master," he observed, "when you know you're supposed to be afraid of him. The ones who use the slipper or the ruler a great deal are the ones the boys make most fun of when they talk about the masters."

So far as my inquiries indicate, very little corporal punishment is used in junior (7-11 years) or girls' schools. Here, apparently, the customary punitive measures consist of detention, "a jolly good talking-to," or written assignments. The "talking-to" may take place immediately in front of the class, or the student may be sent down to the headmaster for "a proper dressing down."

In other instances, students may be omitted from a desirable activity or the names of offenders may be read aloud by the headmaster during school assembly. The amount of delinquency or truancy in these schools does not seem to be appreciably different from those where corporal punishment is usually practiced.

SOME YES, SOME NO

Several headmasters endorsed the use of the rod outright, others condemned it, and some recommended its infrequent use on special occasions. "The cane does its best work in the closet," one retired school head told me.

An interesting view came from the head of a prominent secondary school. "If I find the offense to be simply a matter of schoolboyish high spirits," said he, "then I deal with the matter in just that fashion. However, if there is some domestic or emotional problem involved, why then in that case the cane is not at all the answer."

One headmaster described a young man who came in to tell him, "When I went to school here, you gave me two good thrashings, and I want to thank you for them. If you hadn't, I might have got into real trouble." Two heads, both serving in juvenile courts as part-time justices, stated that corporal punishment wisely used, is useful and worthwhile.

Several headmasters voiced their disbelief in the desirability of such discipline. They felt that many boys who were so punished frequently came from homes where beatings and violence were already overused. Furthermore, they contended, schoolboys were more likely to view the offender with awe and admiration and so glorify the occasion rather than draw from it an object lesson.

And so the matter is regarded—praised by some, condemned by others, passively accepted by a third group, but used by the majority of schools. One viewpoint seemed to stand out: the key question was not whether corporal punishment was right in principle or successful application, but how, or when, and in what circumstances it should be used. But the response that seemed to stand out from all I heard was the defiant, "Nah, I dun't mind. I'm too used to it." •

Controlling the Child

• TEACHERS have had to take altogether too much nonsense from unruly children. We need to have as much investment in how to control children as we have in how to understand them. There has been much belaboring of the mental health concept but little progress. It's like our attitude toward sex. We're advertising it but we don't know how to manage it. All our energy has been put into accepting the child . . . Teachers are told to "accept" the child, to love and understand him . . . I think our acceptance will have to change from naive resignation . . . Teachers will accept him by doing what is necessary to help the child—and this may mean restricting him.—*William C. Morse*, University of Michigan.

• NOWADAYS everything around the house is controlled by switches except the children.—*North Carolina Education.*

• MY Pop's tops because he lets me help him work in the garden even if I don't want to.—Entry in "My Pop's Tops" contest in the *Milwaukee Sentinel.*

Eight Influences for Uniformity

Uniformity vs. Diversity in the Senior-High School

WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER
In Educational Leadership

MANY of the issues in secondary education today relate to one central question: How, if at all, should the organization and program of the senior-high schools differ from community to community?

This question of uniformity *vs.* diversity has been a central one in American secondary education throughout its history. An interest in diversity led to the establishment of the academy, then of the high school and special purpose schools, and to the introduction of varied programs of studies. Less than a century ago, marked diversity brought about the efforts of national committees to clarify (perhaps standardize) the purposes and the programs of secondary schools.

In the latter part of the nineteenth century, there really was extreme diversity among secondary schools. The studies of the Committee of Ten and later national committees dealing with the problem of college entrance and preparation were clearly and probably correctly intended to bring about greater uniformity.

The work of accrediting associations in the various regions was initiated for the same purpose.

William M. Alexander is Chairman, Department of Education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. Reported from Educational Leadership, *XVIII (January 1961), 202–04, 258.*

Other factors, however, operated to continue some differences among the schools and their programs, especially the factors of local traditions and educational ideals and of local variation in school control and financial support.

Both sets of factors continue as we enter the 1960's. There are now especially strong influences in the directions of greater uniformity among the nation's senior-high schools. Among the more significant influences are these:

1. The growing recognition of the mobility of our population, and the consequent question as to whether the local high school should any longer pattern its curriculum to the social, economic, and occupational status of the community.

2. The various arguments from many sources that our national survival and international leadership require greater emphasis in the

secondary school on specific patterns of science, mathematics, and modern languages courses, and in general on a specified program of academic preparation for the more able students.

3. Federal appropriations under the National Defense Education Act to support curriculum provisions in science, mathematics, and modern languages, and also provisions of guidance and testing services.

4. The aspirations of the American people for their children to have a college education and the accompanying belief, enforced by many pressures, that this is possible only as certain traditional college-entrance subjects are given priority in the curriculum.

5. A wide use of various types of achievement tests in the common academic areas.

6. The extensive study of the Conant report on the American high school, and efforts in many local districts to implement the Conant recommendations.

7. The unrest of professional educators as to the adequacy of past and present curriculum scope and sequence in some areas, and the consequent readiness for wholesale adoption of new, perhaps promising, programs.

8. Widespread dissatisfaction with current organizational and teaching practices, and especially with their failure to realize more fully the potentials of mechanical teaching aids.

At the same time there are strong, contrary factors to be evaluated in reaching a judgment as to the desirability and likelihood of uniformity among schools.

DIVERSITY PROPONENTS

Many lay citizens and educators resist any blueprint for senior-high-school education in the belief that deliberate efforts toward uniformity would need to be focused on the prescription of some group or agency.

These proponents of diversity insist that the traditions of democracy are in strong conflict with the existence of any official national agency empowered to make such prescriptions. Too, all of us recognize that differences among communities as to concentration of population, financial support, and community aspirations cannot be eliminated rapidly. Few would deny that cultural differences arising from racial backgrounds of the population, present socioeconomic status, and community occupations may continue to influence the types of specialized education offered in individual schools throughout the country.

Furthermore, variations in the preparation and quality of teachers and administrators, and in the educational level and interest of the population and of the controlling boards, cannot immediately be reduced by adoption of uniform standards and programs. There is also reason to believe that a certain vitality of education in many American communities is explained by the concern of their citizens for good schools.

This writer's judgment is that our senior-high schools are definitely moving toward a greater degree of uniformity and that this trend is likely to continue. We can expect increasing uniformity in at least the following respects: Elimination of the smaller high schools and an extension of the school day and year. Provision of guidance services. Higher standards of teacher selection, training, and compensation. Increased use of modern learning aids. A minimum offering in English, modern languages, social studies, science, and mathematics, and an increase of specialized offerings in the same subject fields plus those of business education, industrial education, and the arts.

GOOD OR BAD?

Uniformity in such respects as these is probably to the good. There are other respects, however, in which diverse practices must be encouraged if the senior-high school is to serve American youth well. Techniques of individualized instruction are sorely needed in every classroom and school, but these can be effectively developed only as individual teachers become interested in discovering and using the techniques. Effective teaching practices simply cannot be standardized; in fact, the outstanding weakness, not noted by most current critics, of secondary education today is the prevalence of instructional procedures which fail to stimulate learning.

Ways and means of organizing instructional groups depend on too many variable, human factors to expect national formulas as to ability grouping, small and large classes, and team teaching to work well in each school. The patterns of course requirements, which receive such overweaning attention from most national committees, are of considerably less significance than patterns of learning experiences planned for individual youngsters.

As we seek ways of providing better senior-high schools, perhaps we should work for greater uniformity in quality of educational programs and processes rather than in quantitative standards and requirements as to courses and instructional organization. Three areas for continued study offer particular promise of improved quality:

1. The determination and promotion of teaching behavior which stimulates youth's will to learn.

2. The continuous selection and dissemination, probably by national professional organizations, of significant new curriculum content.

3. The experimental evaluation of various patterns of staff utilization and of related school activities.

Extensive study, experimentation, and publication in these areas will likely increase diversity, rather than uniformity, of practices in senior-high schools. The average quality, however, should rise sharply. •

Beware the Foreign-Language Band Wagon

MARIANN MARSHALL, ELIZABETH F. KAYS, BERNARD J. NEGRONIDA

In The Elementary School Journal

MUCH has been written and said of late about the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school. Writers have extolled the virtues of new language programs, and the public has accepted, largely without question, the desirability of having young people learn a second language.

On superficial examination one might see little reason to object to such an addition to the curriculum. Certainly this was the attitude of all three of us when we were given the assignment of investigating the advisability of teaching foreign languages in the elementary grades of our school. One of us is a foreign-language teacher; another, a seventh-grade teacher; and the third, a former elementary teacher now working in psychology.

Our school is an independent school extending from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. The enrolment is about 500. Many of our pupils come from upper-income level homes with about a third coming from middle-income level homes.

We started our study believing that the languages of other lands should be taught in the elementary school. After seven months of research, our initial position was reversed. After surveying the field and studying our own school, we concluded that foreign languages should not be taught in the elementary grades in our school. We each arrived at this conclusion independently and did not divulge our new position to one another until we met to prepare a summary statement.

What are the reasons behind our recommendation? We based our decision on the educational philosophy of our school and our interest in the whole child rather than in any one field of learning.

We found, first, that no established course of study, thoroughly tested in the classroom, would fit our situation. Many foreign-language programs are planned for children of superior intelligence.

Mariann Marshall, Elizabeth Ford Kays, and Bernard J. Negronida are members of the faculty at the Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, Illinois. Reported from The Elementary School Journal, *LXI (December 1960), 133–136.*

We are not yet convinced that it is desirable to have ability groupings (in any area) that are based on intelligence quotients. We could not, therefore, consider adopting such a course of study.

True, we could set up our own syllabus, but then we would be adding another school to those now involved in the language experiment, rather than starting a program of known value and effectiveness. We are certainly not opposed to experimentation, but there is a limit to the number of experiments a school can properly and profitably engage in. We believe that we can make a greater over-all contribution to education by continuing our experiments in anthropology and the Gillingham Reading Program, than by joining the rush of speculators in the foreign-language field.

FINDING TIME

Also, we saw that finding time in the school day for another subject would present real difficulties. We think of language as an area of study, not as a game to be played for a few minutes a day, a few days a week. We did not feel that any of the basic subjects could be eliminated and replaced with foreign-language study. Nor are we willing to have our children forego art, shop, music, science, or physical education. As for lengthening the school day, as some recommend, it is our experience that the school day is about as long as the children can handle.

We also feel deep concern about getting qualified teachers for a foreign-language program in the elementary grades. We think of a qualified teacher as one who has excellent pronunciation, one who is well trained in the language field as well as in the teaching of younger children. We feel strongly that in language, *no* teaching is better than *inadequate* teaching. We were distressed to find that several schools were employing college students, high-school teachers, and people with no teaching preparation or experience to teach languages in the lower grades.

In weighing the advisability of adding another subject to an already crowded program, we were not sure whether more pressure and increased tension for the children would result. We do know that it would mean another adult contact. Our children now have a greater number of special teachers than children in most schools do. Up to a point, this is desirable, but when the need for adjustment becomes excessive, it can lead to undesirable results.

THE NEW PUPIL

Schools engaged in the foreign-language experiment admit that one of their problems is what to do with the child who enters their school after the beginning point of language study. As far as we know, no satisfactory arrangement has been found to care for the child who enters late. We feel it would be difficult to tutor these children to bring them up to the level of the class. Several teachers have told us that because the class moves slowly, newcomers frequently catch on quickly. This, we think, is a sad commentary on the work being done.

RETENTION VALUE

Many educators question the ability of the average pupil to retain what he is taught if the languages do not become a part of his out-of-school-life. In such cities as San Diego, Los Angeles, El Paso, and Carlsbad, the teaching of Spanish meets the needs of a bilingual community. In Louisiana and along the eastern Canadian border, the learning of French by elementary-school children serves a social purpose. It can be used in their daily out-of-school life.

But we found many schools where language study had been introduced because of public pressure, not because the staff believed that language study was in the children's best interest. This is not an honest way of facing an educational issue.

Finally, we must ask, how would the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school affect the high-school language program? Authorities generally agree that language study in the elementary school results in better pronunciation, greater fluency, and a greater feeling of at-homeness in the language. But it is not uncommon for children who have had five or six years of elementary-school language to be placed in the second year of high-school language. To us, such placement seems a waste of the children's time. There is no evidence that students who have studied a foreign language in elementary school get better grades in language in high school.

We agree that there are values to teaching a foreign language to young children, but we do not believe that foreign-language study should be incorporated into our present program. Many complicated adjustments would have to be made, the outcomes of which we are now unable to evaluate. However, if it could be proved that the advantages to the enrichment of the child's background are great enough to offset the objections we have raised, our school would put forth every effort to take part in the language experiment.

The final word has not yet been said on the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school. It behooves us as parents and teachers to keep informed on the foreign-language experiment. It is not an open-and-shut case.

For our own school, we recommend a permanent committee on foreign languages in the elementary school that will continue the research begun this year. The duty of this committee will be to keep interested groups informed so that when and if the study of a foreign language is introduced into the lower school, we shall have an intelligent understanding of what is to take place—and why. •

For a Better Arithmetic Program

Why Not Individualize Arithmetic?

WALTER L. WHITAKER

In The Arithmetic Teacher

DURING the past 15 or 20 years, teaching methods in reading have developed which make adjustments to the individual student's abilities in all phases of learning to read. It is quite common to find in one elementary classroom two to four groups of children reading from different books and using different materials.

By comparison, the arithmetic curriculum has followed a grade-level organization. Often all children are using the same text and, in extreme cases, all may be doing the same work at the same time. And yet, any class of upper-elementary-grade children is likely to have a three-year to six-year range in arithmetic ability and achievement.

What has caused this situation to develop? Certainly, the fact that many textbooks are directed to a specific grade level has been a contributing factor. With each book being a lock-step presentation of concepts and processes, the tradition of introducing certain skills and concepts in a prescribed order has kept the curriculum grade-centered in its organization.

The noticeable gap between achievement scores and the mental-age placement on most standardized tests indicates that the lock-step system does not provide each child with the opportunity for maximum learning. This gap becomes even more acute as ability increases. The system is, in essence, forcing all children to the middle, or average, ability area.

The resulting problems demand that we do something positive. While there is no one answer, each teacher may experiment with the available materials to meet individual differences.

There are plans being used which offer some aid. Among these are: grouping, latitudinal and longitudinal enrichment, special interest groups, and individual arithmetic teaching. These attempts to give a better arithmetic program are worth a close examination.

GROUPING

Arithmetic grouping may be planned using the concepts that are the basis of grouping in reading. Achievement scores in comparison with mental-age grade placement will indicate a breakdown in the grouping of children.

Walter L. Whitaker is an elementary-school teacher at Culver City Unified Schools, Culver City, California. Reported from The Arithmetic Teacher, *VII (December 1960), 400–03.*

As a beginning, the teacher might use two groups, with one group for the lower third and group two including the remainder of the class. This will remove the slow learners from the normally paced program.

When the program has operated for a period of time, the individual differences become more acute in terms of the amount of time it takes to complete the work, how fast mastery is achieved, and maintenance of general interest in arithmetic. It is soon obvious that the larger group will not run smoothly because the top third of the class learns faster and more thoroughly. This third group should be the basis of another group within the class organization. These three groups will operate successfully, even though some children in each group will not gain the maximum from the learning situation.

HELP FOR GIFTED

The gifted children in the classroom will need some kind of acceleration or expansion into the depths of mathematical understandings. One way to help these children is to create special-interest groups. Such a program will usually select those children who have a basic interest in numbers. The group may meet for a 60-minute period during the school day or may be planned for a once-a-week extension of the school day.

In a free-learning situation, these children can do a sort of adventuring in number and its usage. Such areas as simple geometry, beginning algebra, or social application may be suitable for discussion. Such opportunities give these capable children the chance to explore many areas which are not covered by texts in the conventional curriculum. The average elementary teacher can give some direction to this type program without special training in mathematics—provided the teacher really wants to create interest. This program can give the academically talented child a truly challenging experience.

ENRICHMENT

Current pressure for skill in mathematical concepts requires that all children have the opportunity to learn a great deal more than our present curriculum offers. All too often the stock response is to "provide enrichment." Enrichment should mean a type of learning which gives greater understanding. Much enrichment, when carefully analyzed, actually is repetition and busy work hidden by new words in the social-usage areas.

For true enrichment, a child needs to know all of his whole number, fractional, and decimal processes. Once these are mastered, the horizon of experimentation and enrichment is greatly widened. A specific example, and one with available materials, is the entire field of aviation arithmetic.

It must be remembered that the children who benefit from enrichment are those who learn arithmetic skills quickly and efficiently in both depth and use. Therefore, any effort to increase the material which is not covered in the lockstep method will give a basis for this type of enrichment.

INDIVIDUALIZED TEACHING

The individualized teaching program is yet another possible solution. This concept takes teaching to the ultimate in meeting individual differences. Each student is taught and learns at his level of achievement, regardless of his ability. Initially this idea is rejected by many because it appears physically impossible or because it smacks of "modern methods." It is not impossible when properly organized and implemented. The author has put into practice just such a program with a sixth-grade class in Washington School, Culver City Unified School District, California.

The program is based on having a range of textbook materials in the room. This does not mean more copies of one book; it means greater variety within the same number of textbooks.

Each child is placed at the point in the texts at which he achieves best. The child meets individually with the teacher and learns the required material. The assignment is given and the child does the work. He checks his own work and writes a description of any error. On completion, he signs an appointment list. The teacher holds conferences in the order in which the children finish their work. If a student encounters difficulty, he raises his hand, the teacher acknowledges and gives help before the next appointment is met. A check list is maintained for all the skills so that nothing is overlooked. The assignments are moved from text to text to take advantage of the best ideas from each author. The arithmetic period is usually about 60 minutes, and as a rule, each child in the room is seen every other day.

All this may seem complex, but the results in terms of the children's attitude and class control are gratifying. The slow learner is not compelled to meet group standards and relaxes to learn more easily what he can. The average learner can understand as much as he wants above the required basics. The bright child has the opportunity to expand his thinking in any area he desires without being held to a slower-paced group.

This has been a brief review of attempts to make adjustments within the arithmetic program to gear it to the theory of individual differences. Some effort must be made to plan an arithmetic program which meets the needs of all the children in an elementary classroom. As educators dedicated to giving every child the best possible education, we must eventually adjust the total curriculum so that each child will gain the *maximum* in terms of his ability and interests. So—why not individualize arithmetic? •

What Influences Will Control the Program?

The Changing Business Program in the High School

HERBERT A. TONNE

In Business Education Forum

FROM day to day and year to year we notice little change in the way we teach business education and the subject matter our students learn. We may use one procedure this year and another the next; we may emphasize one topic this year and another the next; but essentially, over the years content seems to be much the same. Actually, however, there have been profound changes.

The content of the shorthand today is quite different from that of even 10 years ago. The nature of the typewriting we are teaching has changed significantly. And the bookkeeping content has changed considerably—the enrolment more drastically. Bookkeeping enrolments have dropped, primarily because the second year has been eliminated in many communities. Typewriting enrolments have increased tremendously but typewriting has become predominantly a one-year subject. Shorthand has held its own. There has been a loss in second-year shorthand enrolment but an increase in many regions in first-year shorthand.

Many subjects we taught 20 or 30 years ago have gone by the wayside, economic geography, for example. Others have come to the forefront, office practice, for example. Almost all of these changes have been to the good.

But what about future changes in the area of business education? Will they be to the good? How can we influence them? What, for example, are the influences that will control the business program in the high school? There are several, it seems to me.

The dominant influence will be insistence on an increased number of the so-called "solid" subjects. There has been an insistence on the number of units in science and mathematics, not only for the most able, but even for the average and, unfortunately in many cases, for the nonacademic. The more able are pressured to squeeze many units of foreign language into their program and there is a strong tendency for the average to imitate the more able. This trend will result in fewer opportunities for students to take business subjects.

The increasing college enrol-

Herbert A. Tonne is a member of the faculty, New York University, New York. Reported from Business Education Forum, *XV (February 1961), 19–20, 27.*

ment is forcing a need for some method of selection. Intelligence by itself is not sufficient; personality is too vague; high-school grades vary so much from school to school that they are in most cases quite meaningless. In sheer desperation, college admissions officers resort to the arbitrary system of requiring as many traditional academic subjects as possible.

The ideal pattern for college entrance, according to the usual admissions officer, is 18 units of high-school work in "solids." Any deviation is usually in terms of athletic prowess, personality, and grades; certainly not in terms of business subjects accepted.

Thus, colleges have returned to strong control of the nature of learning in high school, despite evidence presented for many years of the lack of justification. The college control also has a tendency to limit the number of students who take business subjects and the number of such subjects taken.

As our occupational life becomes more complex, there is an increasing demand that students have a better cultural background. This demand tends to shift the business program upward. Some businessmen in the past have said that they would prefer the academic student for employment. An ever increasing number now seek an academic background, particularly in those for whom they feel there is promotional possibility. This tendency may also restrict business education at the secondary level.

Automation is reaching into occupational life with astounding rapidity, creating more opportunities for the broadly-trained person and fewer opportunities for the routine worker.

SPECIFIC INFLUENCES

As for the specific influences these tendencies will have on the business curriculum, here is how it appears to me:

More efficient job preparation. We must give instruction for business occupations more efficiently, more effectively, and in a shorter period of time. If, in the high school, we are going to develop competent workers for business, we need to do so despite the pressure for the "solids." We need to eliminate everything that is not necessary for initial job skill and streamline the methodology for what is taught.

Opportunity for academic students. We need to provide specific job training for appropriate academic students. These students cannot take three years of shorthand and typewriting, one year of bookkeeping, and one year of general business. We must provide them with a good job skill in stenography, bookkeeping, or merchandising in one year—or better, in six months—plus six months of typewriting. If necessary, this instruction must be given after hours, in the summer, or at another time, if the pressure of the "solids" is too great.

Planning for the usual student

We need to reorganize our program for the average student. Our students need more application to the job situation and less theory. Theory is important but only as it leads to competency in application. We probably will have to limit ourselves to one year of bookkeeping based on a competent understanding of theory with thorough application to the kind of recordkeeping processes that are now being used on the job by beginning workers. We now spend too much time on shorthand theory because of the antiquated load of theory we still teach.

The nonacademic student. We have made good progress in providing for the nonacademic student in business education in the last few years. We must do even more. Apart from a few basic subjects, most school administrators will be delighted to have us prepare the nonacademic for job competency. We need to help these students develop proper work habits, an understanding of the nature of the job situation, and the basic skills of analyzing, synthesizing, collating, and processing, which are the basic operations performed by office workers.

THE "IF'S"

If we can undertake these basic steps effectively within the next few years, if textbook writers will produce materials by which the teachers can present these techniques, and if publishers will have the courage to publish such textbooks, there is an indisputable place for business education in the high-school program.

If we insist on maintaining business programs as they are now, and as they have been in many places for the last 10 years, then the "solids" will reduce the enrolment in business education to a minimum. This would be most unfortunate because the "solid" subjects by their very nature tend to be general and theoretical, and high-school students particularly need the practical down-to-earth applications which business subjects so proficiently provide.

Business teachers have within their own control, to a large extent, the destiny of business education. If they insist on maintaining the *status quo*, there will be a slow regression toward less important status in the secondary school. If the business teachers are going to continue to have the opportunity to educate the increased number of initial clerical workers needed by business, they must prepare their students for the type of jobs that are available, rather than for job skills formerly required.

A field of learning that is not changing is dull to learn and uninspiring to teach. A field that is meeting new conditions and ruthlessly dropping antiquated learning is a growing and exciting field. We have it in our power to assure the continued excitement of youth in secondary-school business education if we but will—but we must do so before it is too late. •

Italic Writing

WINIFRED BERRY

In The Independent School Bulletin

AMONG educators it has become a matter of deep concern that our children are growing to maturity literally unable to write. The level of handwriting education has steadily deteriorated in past years, until now it is a genuine surprise to find an adult whose handwriting is legible, much less pleasant to read.

This common illegibility is so widespread it has become almost a national joke. Certainly there are few teachers, faced with page after page of almost undecipherable scrawls, who have not wistfully wondered if there was any answer to the problem. Many answers have been adopted in practice: a modified print script, for example, or a painfully slow and careful transcription. But these have little to do with the central problem; they are, rather, an avoidance of it.

The basic issue is simple enough. The three requirements of cursive handwriting are that it be legible, rapid, and beautiful. Unfortunately, the generally used systems of handwriting education fail miserably on all three counts. Most of them, when written at speed, and with the normal individual variation, degenerate into hopeless scribbles and mere suggestions of words. When meticulously worked out, for the sake of legibility, speed is impossible. Any beauty there is must be the beauty of eccentricity; a dubious value at best.

Fortunately, the past 10 years have seen a revolution in handwriting education (particularly in English schools) which offers a satisfactory solution. Faced with the same problem, British educators have increasingly moved toward a system of cursive writing which satisfies all the above criterions. This has been so successful that it can no longer be considered experimental.

This is a cursive hand commonly called italic. The essential letter forms of this alphabet are just that —the essential forms, not confused with the arbitrary loops and whorls that characterize many of our present systems. This is not print-script, because the italic hand is true cur-

Winifred Berry teaches italic writing and is a member of the Pre-School staff of Catlin Gabel School, Portland, Oregon. Reported from The Independent School Bulletin, *(January 1961), 69.*

sive writing; it was designed to be written connectedly at speed. Further, these forms are so related to our present type faces that learning them eliminates the foolish necessity of learning two completely different alphabets, one for reading and one for writing. This family resemblance is no accident; both the italic cursive and many of our type faces are descended from the same ancestor, a Renaissance Italian hand known as Chancery Cursive.

In the fall of 1959, the italic hand was introduced into the Catlin Gable School at Portland, Oregon. As originally established, this program called for greatest emphasis on the first five grades, where the muscular skills are learned that will carry into adult life. The training is given both through special handwriting classes and through everyday work with regular teachers. Italic is taught exclusively in the lower five grades. Grades 6 through 8 are given the opportunity to take italic as a voluntary activity course, and the class has been oversubscribed. There even have been a number of requests from parents wishing to learn the hand!

The results have been excellent. Teachers have found papers improving in legibility and appearance, and the children themselves view the program with enthusiasm, rather as a privilege than as an ordeal.

The initiators of the program believe strongly that the results of introducing the italic hand have been most beneficial. The program has effectively demonstrated that italic is a practical and sensible solution to the problem of handwriting education. It worked well in England, and Catlin Gabel is happy to report it is working well in America. •

Return of the Edged Pen

EVERYONE complains about handwriting; but, as Mark Twain said about the weather, nobody does anything about it. Yet there is at last a stirring of action. In the past decade the force of the British example has brought to the United States a new interest in the italic hand and in its shaping tool, the broad-edged pen . . . It is important to understand that the edged pen is in fact the tool that shaped our Latin alphabet . . . Indeed, of all the ancient manuscripts now preserved in the world's museums and libraries, over 90 percent were written with the edged pen . . . In the edged pen's restoration to common use, the written italic, so long corrupted by improper tools, is again brought within the powers of the adult layman and of the very youngest penman.—*Paul Standard,* St. Thomas Church Choir School, New York City.

The Students Like It

Teaching Anthropology in High School

ROBERT L. DUNLAP

In Washington Education

A COURSE in anthropology was offered at Sedro Woolley High School in the state of Washington last spring. Several factors entered into the decision to add an experimental course to the already overcrowded curriculum. The primary consideration was that anthropology, as a scientific discipline, deals with man's social nature, cutting across science and social sciences to give the student an overview of all he has studied in those two areas during his entire school program.

Another factor leading to the decision was the recognition by administration and faculty that Sedro Woolley High School is located in the heart of a large archaeological area, that of the Northwest Coast Indians. This area, stretching from the southern Oregon border well into Alaska, has been only partially explored. As the region becomes more settled, valuable sites are being damaged and disturbed. It seemed proper to offer an informed assist toward gathering information of Washington's cultural heritage before such sites were destroyed. It was considered that, as a long-range effect, successful completion of the course would release a number of generally informed people into the area. This would help considerably in the recognition and preservation of valuable archaeological sites.

Robert L. Dunlap is a Social-Studies and Anthropology Teacher at Sedro Woolley High School, Washington. Reported from Washington Education, *LXXII (January 1961), 16–18.*

The course was worked out in the winter of 1960, to be offered to seniors for the coming spring. Thirty-four students were enrolled. Herbert C. Taylor, professor of sociology-anthropology at Western Washington College of Education, assisted in selection of materials and acted as general advisor to the classroom teacher. As no standard textbook was available, it was necessary to use a number of standard reference works and general information books to make up a room library for the proposed course.

The first anthropology class began with a six-week study of formal sociology. From this point the class entered physical anthropology, tracing the history of man. "Race," "ancient civilization," and "archaeological methods" were the next three units. Lecture-discussion, research problems, and discussion were the favorite methods of instruction.

The course reached its climax in the unit "Northwest Coast Indians." Field excavations were planned and executed. One student group assisted the University of Washington's field team at an excavation site. Later, students volunteered to assist in the opening of a site reserved for their high-school class.

The site was accessible, yet secluded. Volunteers opened a test trench during after-school hours and sank several test pits. With the site "proved," the second group of students came out to dig. Artifacts of horn, bone, and stone were recovered, as well as large quantities of fish and animal remains. Since the site covers approximately a half-acre, Sedro Woolley students will have a productive and interesting site for several years. With the classroom teacher providing continuity, a general survey of the site can be accomplished and recorded.

Students were particularly enthusiastic about the digs. All the digs were voluntary, and a number of students attended more than one. It is worth remembering that archaeological excavation involves working on hands and knees, with a small mason's trowel, in a pit five feet square—removing dirt an inch at a time.

Students were given an opportunity to comment on the course at the end of the final unit. Most indicated that they had found the course "interesting," some said that it was the "most interesting" of all their high-school courses. A significant number were in favor of lengthening the course. Several made valuable suggestions toward improvement. No student said that he disliked the course.

No voice was raised from the community to protest the teaching of anthropology. Several people enrolled were members of church groups directly antagonistic to the Darwinian concept, a major premise of physical anthropology. During the course introduction, however, it was announced that what was to be presented was theory or concept held by many and *known* to *all* educated people. The students had the option of believing as they chose, but they were urged to know all sides of the theory.

What is the future of anthropology at Sedro Woolley High School? To take advantage of fall digging weather and to avoid the hurly-burly of last quarter "seniorism," the course has been moved to the fall. There are now two sections of sociology-anthropology. A more careful articulation of sociology and anthropology has been planned and efforts are being made to refine the techniques, thereby rendering more valuable the knowledge the first groups gleaned from the earth.

The experiment has proven successful and has shown that the modern teenager is *not* afraid to work physically or mentally. It has also shown that youth possesses an enthusiasm for academic things if they are properly presented. •

★ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Administration Program.—Hearings were scheduled for last month on the Administration's "School Assistance Act of 1961." In the House, the leading sponsor was Rep. Frank Thompson (D-N.J.) In the Senate, Wayne Morse (D-Ore.) and 21 additional sponsors introduced the three-year program. First year cost of the Morse-Thompson bill will be $660 million.

Patterned after last year's bill, S8, as passed in the Senate, the new proposal calls for at least $15 for each child in average daily attendance (not each school-age child, as in 1960), with the funds to be spent at the discretion of the state for school construction or teachers' salaries, or both. In each state, 10 percent of the allocation would be available for pilot, demonstration, and experimental projects designed to meet educational problems, or to develop or evaluate educational programs of a special or unique nature. This is an innovation which is attracting a good bit of favorable attention.

Other features of the bills are:

√Maintenance of state and local financial effort.

√Authorization of ten cents per student for state administrative expenses of the program.

√Prohibition of federal control.

√Increases above the $15 per student for low-income states which are making efforts at or above the national average to finance their schools.

Tied in with the support legislation is an extension and modification of Public Laws 815 and 874 (81st Congress), the federally impacted-areas program.

Although this program affects almost 4,000 school districts and has been in operation for 10 years, its details are not widely understood. Originally it was meant to provide federal payments in lieu of taxes which were not being produced by nontaxable federal installation. PL 815 provides construction funds; PL 874 helps to maintain and operate local schools. The Eisenhower budgets had repeatedly and unsuccessfully sought to cut back this program on the grounds that it paid out more than the corresponding local taxes would have produced.

Under the Kennedy Administration proposal the requirements for eligibility would be tightened in such a way that there would result a serious cutback in federal funds for those pupils whose parents live *or* work (but not both) on federal property.

Response to this feature was quick and negative. Objections are that the present program is good and should be continued; that if it really is a bit too generous, then the cuts should be more gradual. Forecasts are that the cuts would not be made—at least not as drastically as proposed by the President—especially because there are 321 members of Congress whose Congressional seats include school districts now receiving these federal funds.

Roman Catholic View.—Another attack on the President's proposal came from several members of the Catholic hierarchy. In essence, they charged that a bill to help public schools discriminates against youngsters in private and parochial schools. After some early blasts, there appeared a more conciliatory tone in a statement issued by Archbishop Karl J. Alter, chairman of the Administrative Board of the National Catholic Welfare Conference:

1. Catholics are free to favor or oppose federal aid to education, based on objective and economic facts.
2. Catholic school children, in justice, should be given a chance to participate in any such program.
3. Long-term low-interest loans to private institutions should be included in the Administration bill.
4. Without such loans, the children in private schools will be the victims of discrimination and there will be no alternative but to oppose such discrimination.

The National Education Association, eager not to revive the religious controversy of 1949, was trying to keep quiet and appeared to be ready to acquiesce to the loan amendment, neither backing nor opposing it.

Earlier, NEA had hailed the President's message on education as a "great document" and said it will support the President's program without "if's" or "but's." It pressed for quick enactment, without recommending any changes in the draft legislation.

Congressional Committees.—New faces have been named to the House Committee on Education and Labor: **Democrats** Ralph J. Scott (N.C.), Neal Smith (Iowa), Charles S. Joelson (N.J.), and Julia Butler Hansen (Wash.); **Republicans** Charles E. Goodell (N.Y.), Peter A. Garland (Me.), Donald C. Bruce (Ind.), John M. Ashbrook (Ohio), and Dave Martin (Neb.).

The General Education Subcommittee will continue under the chairmanship of Cleveland Bailey (D-W.Va.) while Edith Green (D-Ore.) will head a subcommittee handling bills on higher education, juvenile delinquency, and migrant labor.

In the Senate, the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare quietly cut its Republican members from six to five, with John Sherman Cooper (Ky.) assigned to a new slot. New Democrats are Quentin Burdick (N.Dak), Benjamin A. Smith (Mass.), and Claiborne Pell (R.I.).

Theology by Mail.—The Federal Trade Commission made its complaint of last August stick, charging three Illinois companies with "misrepresenting that they are accredited nonprofit residence schools" when, in fact, they sold for profit correspondence courses in theology, philosophy, and the Bible.

The FTC charged that "contrary to respondents' representations, Colonial Academy and Pioneer Seminary are profit-making organizations, and are not residence schools; they are not old, established reputable schools; their diplomas are not recognized by any institution, agency, or organization; persons awarded such diplomas are neither entitled to nor will receive the same honors, rights, and privileges as persons holding diplomas from properly accredited schools; and their honorary diplomas are given to anyone willing and able to pay for them and are not conferred for educational or ministerial achievements."

Peace Corps.—In early March, President Kennedy, by executive order, set up a temporary Peace Corps. He also requested the Congress to continue this program on a permanent basis under Department of State auspices. Named to head the Corps is R. Sargent Shriver, former head of the Chicago Board of Education and brother-in-law of the President. Mr. Shriver, who will serve without pay, has worked for weeks in drafting the plan now put into effect.

Essentially, volunteers will be trained, then sent abroad to teach, to support health and construction projects, to strengthen community ties, to build good will, and to live with the people in newly developing countries at their own level. The selected volunteers of all ages (above 18) will receive health services, maintenance allowances, and severance pay. Most will be college graduates, usually below the age of 30. They will earn deferment but not exemption from their military service obligation.

In Washington, consensus was that the Peace Corps was a bright new idea with tremendous appeal. Volunteers were numerous and enthusiastic, with inquiries so frequent that the improvised staff could not keep up with them.

Enthusiasm ran so high that misgivings and warnings were all but lost. Mr. Shriver warned that "there probably will be failures," no matter how thorough the preparations. Other unanswered questions were these:

√What will be the reaction in the U.S. when the first volunteer gets stabbed in a nationalist riot, or molested during a brawl?

√Will service overseas provide practical experience in teaching? The President said that service "will add to our own country's supply of trained personnel and teachers," but how should this experience be evaluated by state certification agencies?

√Is there enough enthusiasm to sustain the two-to-three-year term of service now outlined?

√What about "cultural shock," as the anthropologists call it? Will these people reach a point where they turn against their environment, denounce it, and thus wipe out all the good that went before?

The pilot Peace Corps hopefully seeks to put 500 volunteers in the field before the end of 1961.

Names in the News.—Shane McCarthy has submitted his resignation as executive director of the President's Council on Fitness of Youth, a position he held since 1956 when the Council was established.

Arthur S. Flemming, former Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, has been designated as President of the University of Oregon.

Student Records.—How public should the personnel records of students be? The question has reached new prominence in the wake of a ruling by the New York Commissioner of Education, giving parents greater rights to learn test scores of their children. Beyond the results of tests, this also may mean access to anecdotal material and notes on interviews. For example, there are obvious hazards for the teacher who notes, without comment or interpretaton, that "Bill claims his father's drinking interferes with his homework."

Confronted with inquiries from many parts of the nation, the American Personnel and Guidance Association is now forming two committees to determine its position.

Arthur Hitchcock, APGA executive secretary, explained that one committee will formulate recommendations for the college level, the other for elementary and secondary students. "The problem is subtle," said Dr. Hitchcock. "On the one hand, we want parents to be better informed about their children. On the other hand, we want to enable the schools to include in their confidential records materials which may be valuable to the school, especially in counseling students, without exposure to parental or public gaze."

The Debate Goes On.—The problem selected for the 1961-62 debate and discussion topic will be: "What should be the role of the federal government in education?" The topic was chosen by ballot under the auspices of the National University Extension Association.

Junior Colleges.—Senator Clifford Case (R-N.J.) made the opening address at the annual meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges here. He asked for "top priority" for his bill to provide funds for construction of junior and community colleges.

Because they are close to the student's home, serve a variety of purposes, and serve an important role in bridging the transition from high school to four-year college, the junior colleges are highly suitable institutions to provide greater educational opportunity for many young people, at minimal personal and public expense. •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Waltham, Mass.: **James FitzGerald,** formerly assistant superintendent, is now superintendent.

Sarasota, Fla.: **Russell W. Wiley,** assistant superintendent, has been named successor to **Carl C. Strode,** retiring.

Phoenix Union High School and College District, Ariz.: **Howard C. Seymour,** formerly superintendent at Rochester, N.Y., has succeeded **Bruce K. Moore,** now superintendent of the Downey, Calif., Unified School District.

New Orleans, La.: **James F. Redmond** has resigned, effective July 1.

Fairbanks, Alaska: **Charles W. Lafferty,** superintendent, Oak Park, Ill., elementary schools, has been named successor to **James Ryan,** retiring.

Portland, Ore.: **J. W. Edwards,** superintendent since 1953, will retire July 31.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

University of Oregon, Eugene: **Arthur S. Flemming,** former U.S. Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, has been appointed president, succeeding **O. Meredith Wilson,** now president of the University of Minnesota.

Thiel College, Greenville, Pa.: **Chauncey G. Bly** has been named successor to **Fredric B. Irvin,** now cultural officer of the United States Information Agency.

Buena Vista College, Storm Lake, Ia.: **Wendell Q. Halverson,** formerly of New York City, has succeeded **John A. Fisher,** now president of Jamestown College, N.D.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Philip H. Coombs, secretary of the Fund for the Advancement of Education since 1952, has been named by President Kennedy as Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs, a newly created post.

Chester D. Babcock, executive director of the department of curriculum and instruction, Seattle, Wash., has been named president-elect of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Jack Edling, director of the Center for Research on Teaching, Oregon State System of Higher Education, has been named senior research coordinator for the new Educational Media Branch of the U.S. Office of Education.

Laurence B. Johnson, editor of the *NJEA Review* and assistant executive secretary, New Jersey Education Association, has announced his retirement in July.

Benjamin Fine, former education editor of *The New York Times*, has been named dean of the newly established school of journalism and communications at Point Park Junior College, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Helen Robinson has been named as the first appointee to the William Scott Gray Research Professorship in Reading at the University of Chicago, Ill.

Demonstration Schools

THIRTY-ONE elementary and secondary schools have been selected to demonstrate the educational offerings of the Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction, John E. Ivey, Jr., president, has announced.

The demonstration schools, situated in Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin, are being equipped without cost by nine major manufacturers of television equipment. These schools are in addition to the hundreds of schools that have indicated they will equip themselves to receive the airborne telecasts, to be started on an experimental basis this spring.

Gifts for Education

AMERICAN philanthropy reached a new high of $8.2 billion in 1960 with a record amount going to educational causes, according to *Giving-USA*, annual survey of philanthropy, published by The American Association of Fund-Raising Counsel.

Education ranked second among the major causes in total receipts from philanthropy, exceeded only by religion. A total of $1.3 billion went to secondary schools, colleges, and universities, approximately 16 percent of giving to all causes. Two years ago, educational causes ranked fourth in total receipts and received an estimated 14 percent, or $1 billion of the nation's then $7.2 billion philanthropy.

Woodrow Wilson Fellows

A TOTAL of 1,333 students from 381 colleges and universities have been named Woodrow Wilson Fellows for 1961-62, the largest number ever elected by the Woodrow Wilson National Fellowship Foundation in its 15-year search for prospective college teachers. The total value of this year's awards has been estimated at $3,000,000.

The fellowships cover the first year of graduate study and are meant to encourage the newly-elected fellows to consider college teaching as a possible career.

Reading Improvement

ANNOUNCEMENT of a nation-wide rise in reading achievement at the elementary-school level was made by Arthur I. Gates, professor emeritus of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association in Chicago.

Dr. Gates' study was a comparison of the results from the tests given to a large group of children, 10-12 years old, in 1937 with the scores of the same tests from a similar group in 1957.

Children today are more concerned with getting the meaning in what they read than with speed, Dr. Gates said.

Bus Law Upheld

THE U.S. Supreme Court has dismissed without a hearing a challenge to a Connecticut law which allows communities to provide bus transportation for pupils of "nonprofit private schools." It left intact a state court decision upholding the law's validity.

The Connecticut law provides that on petition of at least 5 percent of the voters the question of furnishing transportation to "nonprofit private schools" shall be submitted to a special voters' meeting.

More Men Teachers

FOR the first time in modern U.S. educational history, the number of male teachers exceeded the number of women in the school year 1958-59, according to a recently released report of the U.S. Office of Education.

Men comprised 52.2 percent of the total number of teachers for the year, the first time men have been in the majority since the surveys were begun in 1890. The highest majority of women teachers was 65.1 percent in 1929-30. In 1889-90, 59.5 percent of the teachers were women.

Soviet Visitors

FIVE Soviet educators will make an on-the-spot study of educational programs in four U.S. cities and the "typical small town" community of Kent, Ohio, between April 28 and May 20. The group will visit New York, Philadelphia, Washington, and Chicago, in addition to Kent.

The Russians will be guests of the Comparative Education Society of America, which sponsored visits by American educators to the Soviet Union in 1958 and in 1960. The Soviet educators represent the Educational and Scientific Workers Union, which oversees social, recreational, and some professional activities of teachers in the U.S.S.R.

New Required Course

A NEW state ruling in Pennsylvania now requires that every high-school graduate in the state must have taken at least a semester course in world cultures.

The new required course places more emphasis on Asia, the Middle East, and Africa.

New Publications

Two new educational publications have been launched recently—*Books for Young Readers Magazine* and *MLabstracts*.

Books for Young Readers reviews and illustrates books other than textbooks that might be useful for students' supplementary reading. Robert Kraske, Detroit, Mich., is editor and publisher.

MLabstracts, to be published three times a year, will abstract research and opinion on the teaching of modern languages from kindergarten to Ph.D. G. Mathieu, professor at Orange County State College, Fullerton, Calif., is editor and publisher.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

April 2-7, Association for Childhood Education International, Omaha, Neb.

April 4-7, National Catholic Educational Association, Atlantic City, N.J.

April 4-7, American Industrial Arts Association, St. Louis, Mo.

April 4-8, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Chicago, Ill.

April 10-15, National Art Education Association, Miami Beach, Fla.

April 16-22, National Library Week.

April 19-22, National Association for Gifted Children, New York, N.Y.

April 24-28, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA, Miami Beach, Fla.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

May 4-6, National School Boards Association, Philadelphia, Pa.

June 25-30, National Education Association, Atlantic City, N.J. •

New Educational Materials

Programs for the Gifted. Edited by Samuel Everett. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1961. Pp. xv + 299. $5.50.

This book, subtitled "A Case Book in Secondary Education," is the Fifteenth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society.

The text is presented in four parts: Orientation, Programs From Abroad, Programs in Operation in the United States, and Conclusions.

The first part includes articles by Dr. Everett, Paul Witty, and W. H. Kilpatrick on "The Gifted in American Society," "The Nature and Needs of Gifted Adolescents," and "A Philosophic Viewpoint and a Suggested Program."

Part two consists of three chapters: "Ideas from Secondary Education in the U.S.S.R."; "Ideas from the German Gymnasium," and "Ideas from English Grammar Schools."

Part three examines operations of current programs in the United States. Several programs from a variety of schools in varied social settings are discussed. The chief emphases in this section are on curricular provisions and the learning process.

Editor Samuel Everett writes the conclusion, commenting on the material presented and suggesting ideas for programs.

Schools of Tomorrow—Today! Arthur D. Morse. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 191. $1.50, paperback.

This is a report on experiments taking place in education today. James D. Allen, Jr., commissioner of education and president, University of the State of New York, writes in the foreword:

"We of the New York State Education Department believe that *Schools of Tomorrow—Today!* presents a vivid picture of the kind of experimentation which promises to lift the level of American education while it helps to solve the critical problems of quantity and quality."

Some of the experiments reported on are: team teaching, ungraded primary organization, teacher aides, educational television, education for the gifted, and several attempts to meet problems of education in special settings. A chapter, "Breaking the Rural Barrier," is a report on the Catskill Project that is concerned with raising the level of education in a sparsely populated area.

Television and Our Schools. Donald G. Tarbet. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1961. Pp. vii + 268. $5.00.

Following a brief chapter on the historical development of television, this book is concerned with methods and techniques of using television and related equipment in the school.

The book describes the techniques essential for direct teaching by television and offers program ideas for school, college, in-service, and adult education purposes. It points out administrative problems in conducting programs and explains the importance of proper facilities and equipment.

The book is a volume in the Douglass Series in Education. The author is an associate professor of education, University of North Carolina.

Words on Paper. Roy H. Copperud. New York: Hawthorn Books, Inc., 1960. Pp. 287. $4.95.

This book is a manual of prose style for writers, editors, and teachers. Written by Roy Copperud, it is based on his column "Editorial Workshop" in *Editor and Publisher*. It is a bright, entertaining, commonsense handbook for everyone who would like to write today's language "in the most effective way that intelligence, taste, and lucidity can dictate."

The author declares that the book is intended to assist and encourage clear, direct expression. It is based on errors, gaucheries, and misconceptions that have appeared in print.

The first part of the book is on grammar and usage and includes such chapters as "Modifiers Gone Mad," "Verbs and Their Vagaries," "Beset by Demons," "Comma Comment," and "Clouded Titles."

Part Two, entitled "Journalese Jungle," includes the following chapters: "*Cherchez le Cliche*," "The Time and the Place," "Sez Who," and "Doing Something about It."

The third part of the book is on wayward words and includes a glossary of usage.

Communication Media and the School: The Year Book of Education, 1960. Edited by George Z. F. Bereday and Joseph A. Lauwerys. Tarrytown-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1960. Pp. xiv + 592. $8.50.

This is the eighth in the series of international year books published under the auspices of Teachers College, Columbia University, and the University of London Institute of Education.

In this volume authorities from many nations discuss the history and present status of mass communication and its effect on established education methods and learning techniques.

The first section of the book deals with theoretical and social implications of the new media. The second section considers specific inventions or experiments in the use of the new media. The third section, the longest section of the book, gives a representative picture of the organization and use of the new media in schools throughout the world. The final section offers a number of case studies to illustrate in more detail the issues previously raised.

Education in American Society; An Introduction to the Study of Education. Tyrus Hillway. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961. Pp. xiv + 530.

Intended primarily as a textbook for college students who plan to enter the teaching profession, this book deals with nearly every aspect of education which ought to be understood by the successful teacher or administrator.

The book covers the origin, growth, and development of education as a science from the earliest recorded formal learning programs to the most recent educational theories and trends. It lays a foundation of knowledge to prepare the student for more specialized courses in education. The book tries to present American education not as an isolated activity for a few specialists, but as an integral part of the American social, economic, political, and cultural pattern of life.

The author is a professor of education at Colorado State College.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

Henry Clay: Statesman and Patriot. Regina Z. Kelly. **Abraham Lincoln: Man of Courage.** Bernadine Bailey. **Patrick Henry: Voice of Liberty.** William P. Jones. **Thomas Jefferson: Champion of the People.** Joseph Olgin. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960. Pp. 191 each. $1.68 each. New Piper Books.

Why Glasses? The Story of Vision. George J. Sands. **Penny the Medicine Maker; The Story of Penicillin.** Sherrie S. Epstein. Minneapolis: Medical Books for Children, 1960. Pp. 31 and 32. $2.75 each.

Basketball for Young Champions. Robert J. Antonacci and Jene Barr. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960. Pp. 160. $2.95.

Helping Your Child with Spelling. Edward W. Dolch. Champaign, Ill.: The Garrard Press, 1960. Pp. 24.

Modern Foreign Languages in the Elementary School; Teaching Techniques. Elizabeth Keesee. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 29, 1960. Pp. 65. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. $.45.

The Self-Contained Classroom. Edith R. Snyder, editor. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1960. Pp. vii + 88. $1.25.

SECONDARY

Science in Today's World, Science for Your Needs, and Science for Progress. (Second Editions.) Maurice U. Ames, Arthur O. Baker, and Joseph F. Leahy. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961. Pp. xii + 416, xii + 433, and xii + 610. $3.96, $4.12, and $5.24, respectively.

Understanding Light; The Science of Visible and Invisible Rays. Beulah Tannebaum and Myra Stillman. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. 144. $3.00.

How Much and How Many; The Story of Weights and Measures. Jeanne Bendick. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. 192. $2.95.

COLLEGE

The University and World Affairs. Harold Boeschenstein, **et al.** New York: The Committee on the University and World Affairs, 1961. Pp. vi + 84. Available free from The Ford Foundation, 477 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.

Current Issues in Higher Education. G. Kerry Smith, editor. Washington, D.C.: Association for Higher Education, NEA, 1960. Pp. x + 286. $5.00. Proceedings of the 1960 National Conference of Higher Education.

Effective Study. (Revised Edition.) Francis P. Robinson. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1961. Pp. ix + $4.50.

GUIDANCE

The Sextant Series for Exploring Your Future in Manufacturing (Salaried). Milwaukee, Wis.: American Liberty Press, 1960. Pp. xxiii + 96. $1.88. First in a series of 24 vocational guidance books, sold on subscription basis.

So You Want to Go Into Industry. Edward Hodnett. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. xii + 160. $3.00.

GENERAL

The Creative Arts in American Education. Two essays by Thomas Munro and Herbert Read. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960. Pp. viii + 68. $2.50.

On Teaching Adults: An Anthology. Marilyn V. Miller, editor. Chicago: Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, 1960. Pp. ix + 98. Single copies free from the Center, 4819 Greenwood Ave., Chicago, Ill.

Professional Preparation and Effectiveness of Beginning Teachers. John R. Beery. Coral Gables, Fla.: Graphic Arts Press, University of Miami, 1960. Pp. vii + 84.

Guide for Planning Your Educational Program; Workbook for Study of School Programs. Aaron W. Harper and Merlin C. Wittrock. Danville, Ill.: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1960. Pp. xix + 207. $2.50.

Tono-Bungay. H. G. Wells. **Erewhon.** Samuel Butler. **The Diary of a Madman.** Nikolai Gogol. **The Oregon Trail.** Francis Parkman. **Far From the**

Madding Crowd. Thomas Hardy. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1960. $.50 each, paperback. New Signet Classic publications.

Our Atmosphere. Theo Loebsack. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1960. Pp. 192 + 16 pg. insert. $.50, paperback. A new Mentor Book.

Winnie Ille Pu. Translated by Alexander Lenard. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1960. Pp. 121 $3.00. A Latin version of A. A. Milne's **Winnie the Pooh.**

Physics for Everybody. Germaine and Arthur Beiser. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 191. $1.15, paperback.

A Handbook of Latin Literature from the Earliest Times to the Death of St. Augustine. H. J. Rose. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 557. $2.15. A Dutton Everyman Paperback.

Newspaper History of the Civil War. Set No. 1. Oceanside, N.Y.: Newspaper Americana, 1961. A set of 12 reproductions of New York City newspapers for the years 1860-61. $6.95.

AUDIO-VISUALS

Let's Sing Songs in French. A 12" LP record and an illustrated 24-page song book containing eight songs. Available from Ottenheimer Publishers, Inc., Baltimore 15, Md.

Overhead Projection. Horace C. Hartsell and W. L. Veenendaal. Buffalo, N.Y.: Henry Stewart, Inc., 1961. Pp. 75. $2.95.

The AV Index; A Guide to Instructional Material Information in Selected Publications. 1961. Pp. iv + 52. Available from Audio-Visual Research Institute, 1346 Broadway, Detroit 26, Mich. $1.50.

Frank Luther Sings Lois Lenski Songs. An LP record of Lois Lenski's "Songs of Mr. Small" and "Read-and-Sing" books. Available from Henry Z. Walck, Inc., Publishers, 101 Fifth Ave., New York 3, N.Y.

True Book Filmstrips of Biological Science and **True Book Filmstrips of Social Studies.** Each set contains six filmstrips designed for primary grades. Available from IVES (International Visual Education Service, Inc.), 300 S. Racine Ave., Chicago 7, Ill. $28.50 per set. $4.75 each filmstrip.

READER INFORMATION SERVICE

Send in this coupon to get additional information easily and quickly from the advertisers in this issue and about the materials listed in "New Educational Materials."

☐ **American Educator Encyclopedia**

☐ **Holt, Rinehart and Winston New Book**

I would also like more information on the following books and other materials listed in this issue:

....

....

Name .... **Position** ....

Address A-61

A practical text designed to bring children and books together—

Children's Literature in the Elementary School

Charlotte S. Huck, *The Ohio State University*
Doris A. Young, *Purdue University*

Written with a lively enthusiasm, this text relates the principles of child development and learning to the process of book selection; describes the types of literature available for use in the elementary school; suggests ways of using literature in the elementary school program.

May 1961, 512 pp., $6.50 tentative

Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
383 Madison Ave., N.Y.

Constructive Views on World News

Send in this coupon
for your sample copy.

THE CHRISTIAN SCIENCE MONITOR
AN INTERNATIONAL DAILY NEWSPAPER

The Christian Science Monitor
One Norway Street, Boston 15, Mass., U.S.A.

Name ....
Address ....
City .... Zone .... State ....

PBSM

22 NOBEL PRIZE WINNERS
contribute to
THE AMERICAN EDUCATOR encyclopedia*

Reference book quality begins with the selection of highly qualified writers and authenticators.

Glenn Seaborg, Lester B. Pearson, Pearl Buck, Sir Howard W. Florey, and George W. Beadle—newly named Chancellor of the University of Chicago, are among the 22 living winners of Nobel Prizes who have contributed to the American Educator Encyclopedia. Fellow contributors include such eminent men and women as May Hill Arbuthnot, David Ben-Gurion, Sara Innis Fenwick, Senator Hiram Fong, Charles F. Gosnell, J. Edgar Hoover, President John F. Kennedy, Willy Ley, Roger H. McDonough, Samuel Eliot Morison, Allan Nevins, Edward A. Parsons, R. Marlin Perkins, Anna Eleanor Roosevelt, Paul B. Sears, and Vilhjalmur Stefansson.

Reference book quality is guaranteed through careful editing by an outstanding permanent staff, and by pre-testing of new reference materials in classrooms and the Tangley Oaks Laboratory School.

* Have you seen the 1961 edition of the American Educator Encyclopedia? Fifteen hundred pages revised; latest census figures; biography of President Kennedy; comprehensive coverage of Newbery and Caldecott award winners. If you haven't examined the American Educator recently, don't overlook this prized set, a best buy for bookshelves and budget. Write to Mrs. Victoria Johnson for the Tangley Oaks Report on the 1961 American Educator Encyclopedia, or for information about the Tangley Oaks Graduate Fellowship in Education.

Tested and Produced by

THE UNITED EDUCATORS, INC.

THE TANGLEY OAKS EDUCATIONAL CENTER

LAKE BLUFF

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

CONTENTS

Public Schools in the Decade Ahead . School Life 1
Team Teaching . . . . . . NEA Journal 5
Inter-Departmental Team Teaching Chicago Schools Journal 8
New Schools for Africa . . The Unesco Courier 10
Teaching Machines . . . The Nation's Schools 13
Guesses Don't Pay Off in School Elections Michigan Education Journal 16
What's Wrong with Advanced Placement NASSP Bulletin 19
William James' Impact on American Education School and Society 22
Problem Solving as Teaching Method Educational Leadership 25
Forty Years of Change in the Elementary School The National Elementary Principal 28
Why Did He Quit Teaching? . . Ohio Schools 32
A Direct Line to Johnny's School PTA Magazine 34
Let's Give the Teacher's Child a Break The Elementary School Journal 37
Review of Literature on the Slow Learner Education 40
Facts and Figures . . NEA Research Bulletin 43
Forward to Phonetics! . . Phi Delta Kappan 47
With Education in Washington 50
Educational News 54
New Educational Materials 58
Index to Volume XXVI (1960-61) 61

PSYL. LIBRARY

Volume XXVI May 1961 Number 9

THE EDUCATION DIGEST STAFF

LAWRENCE W. PRAKKEN, Editor and Publisher

JEROME C. PATTERSON, Managing Editor

WARREN R. GOOD, Associate Editor

OLIVER E. HANNINEN, Assistant Editor

BURLEY L. HENDRICKS, Assistant Editor

BARBARA N. LEAKE, Circulation Manager

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

THOMAS D. BAILEY, Superintendent, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

NATT B. BURBANK, Superintendent of Schools, Boulder, Colorado

JOHN S. CARTWRIGHT, Superintendent of Schools, Allentown, Pennsylvania

ARTHUR F. COREY, Executive Secretary, California Teachers Association, Burlingame

LYMAN V. GINGER, Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington

PHILIP J. HICKEY, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis, Missouri

HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, Chief, Elementary Schools Section, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

L. S. MICHAEL, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

FRED RAUBINGER, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey

JAMES E. RUSSELL, Secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.

GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Principal, The Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut

RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington

DONALD E. TOPE, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene

HENRY I. WILLETT, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

MEMBER OF

EDUCATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N.Y., Lexington 2-0020. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 711 S. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1961 by Lawrence W. Prakken

Volume XXVI MAY 1961 Number 9

Some Revolutionary Changes Anticipated

Public Schools in the Decade Ahead

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION BRANCH STAFF,
U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION

In School Life

THE decade just past may well become known as the period when the United States reawakened to the importance of education. The country increased its efforts to provide facilities and staff, not only to accommodate the mounting enrolments but to improve the quality of education generally.

But the decade ahead promises even more dramatic changes in the public schools. By 1969-70 there will be nearly 32 million pupils in grades kindergarten through eight, 15 percent more than the 28 million in 1959-60. There will be 12.4 million in grades 9-12, or 47.5 percent more than in 1959-60. And if college enrolments maintain the present rate of increase, the total number will nearly double present enrolment and will represent about 44 percent of all 18-to-21-year-olds in the country.

Everyone, in all areas of education, will be affected to some degree by the changes that will occur in the next decade. One area that is expected to experience dramatic change is that of school facilities. Predictions based on population and school enrolment indicate that the United States will need 600,000 additional classrooms and related facilities in the 1960's. Design and use of these facilities will be influenced by the following factors:

Reported from School Life, *XLIII (January 1961), 5–11.*

1. Acceleration and improvement in state agencies' services to local districts, particularly in the interest of long-range educational planning, and the coordination of federal, state, and local efforts to provide the needed schools.

2. Technological developments in construction methods, engineering, building materials, and the manufacture of school equipment.

3. Research and experimentation in building design.

4. Socioeconomic influences on the size and number of school districts, the organization and size of

each school, the methods of financing school-construction programs and other educational services.

5. Instructional innovations, including various teacher-student ratios, team teaching, educational television, machine teaching, and other technological developments in instruction.

CONSTRUCTION CHANGES

It is expected that the foregoing influences will produce the following changes in construction and use of facilities:

School buildings will have more flexibility. Space will be adaptable to changing teaching methods and varying scheduling patterns. Walls will be easily movable, permitting rooms to be divided or expanded. It will be possible to subdivide auditoriums into instructional areas of various sizes, thereby increasing the use of auditorium space by as much as 90 percent.

School facilities will be more extensively used for both school and community activities. Trends toward a longer school year, a longer school day, more adult-education programs—all these will increase the use of school facilities. Community groups will use school facilities more and more for recreation, meetings, and projects.

School planners and architects will make significant changes in school-building design. In large cities, where land costs are high, there are likely to be schools with underground gymnasiums, auditoriums, civil-defense shelters, automobile parking, and towers for instruction, utilities, and general service facilities. There will be other innovations, such as:

1. The windowless school, artifically lighted and mechanically ventilated.

2. The "school in the round," which requires less building material, less corridor space, and gives each classroom more outside glass than conventional buildings.

3. Movable rooms made up of modular sections. These are easily assembled and disassembled, can be set up singly or in clusters, and are comfortable, functional, and architecturally pleasing.

4. Small neighborhood schools for young children (in some combination of grades kindergarten through three) in heavily populated areas. These will eliminate need for transportation service and, since they do not require large gymnasiums, auditoriums, and cafeterias, will not require large sites.

School buildings will be planned and constructed for conversion to nonschool use. Urban schools that are abandoned as a result of out migration or changes in land use will be convertible to office, factory, warehouse, or other business and industrial use at minimum cost.

Buildings for joint occupancy will be constructed in heavily populated urban and suburban areas. These buildings will include dwelling units and school, or business offices and school. A tall apartment building, for example, will have families living on the upper levels and their small children attending school on the lower levels. As the need for space in the primary grades decreases, space freed can be converted into dwelling units. If more school space is required, the process can be reversed. This will eliminate idle or waste space and will prevent overcrowding classrooms. Schools located near business districts can share buildings with stores, offices, and other types of business compatible with the operation of a school.

The school environment for both teachers and students will be more pleasant and comfortable. Year-round air conditioning will become more common, lighting will be improved, furnishings will be more attractive, and instructional equipment will be practical, functional, and easy to use.

School-plant operating costs will increase. Factors will be the maintenance of complicated equipment and the increased consumption of electricity for improved lighting and for electrically operated devices and equipment.

School buildings will be more efficiently and economically constructed. Modular design, repetitive use of component parts, new and faster construction techniques, and improved building materials will all be a part of the new efficiency.

STAFF CHANGES

And now, turning our attention to the people who will be working with these facilities, what changes can we expect to take place within the professional staff?

Both size and quality of the staff in educational institutions will be affected by society's demands in the 1960's. Standards will be raised for training and selection, for performance and growth, not only because society demands these improvements but because the profession will take on more responsibility for seeing improvements made. This increased acceptance by the profession of responsibility for its own excellence may be the most significant contribution of the decade to development and utilization of staff.

The quality of the candidates for instructional positions will be substantially higher. A greater proportion of college graduates will be attracted to education as a result of improved professional standards and conditions, including a better reward system.

Major changes will be made in the reward system, including salary, fringe benefits, and other compensations. As the several professional duties in the teaching situation become more clearly differentiated and the number of specialized positions is increased, professional and nonprofessional responsibilities will be more clearly defined. Opportunities for growth and advancement will rise sharply.

Greater reliance will be placed on objective measures in recruitment and selection of staff. Such measures will materialize from current research into prediction of success. Use of these measures will be stimulated by the larger number of specialized positions for which requirements can be carefully delineated.

The teacher-class as the basic unit of the instructional program will be severely scrutinized. Advances in curriculum development and instructional materials and methods will necessitate the use of specialists and more flexible schedules from grades 1 through 12.

The total program of personnel administration will be more highly organized. Although many personnel functions will be decentralized, the development and coordination of system-wide policies, paralleling a carefully planned program of personnel administration, will be centralized.

The current emphasis on improvement of preparation programs for school administrators will be intensified. The characteristics of sound programs will be more clearly defined and the early identification and recruitment of potentially successful administrators will be more organized.

Fewer members of the professional staff will be trained in public teachers colleges. The change of teachers colleges to state colleges will be accelerated, and by 1970 there will be few public teachers colleges left. Educators will be trained in institutions that prepare people for other professions, too.

Organized and systematic in-service education programs for professional staff will be developed. Because of the rapid additions to knowledge in all fields and the scrutiny being given to teaching methods, educators will not long find their preservice training adequate. To maintain professional status, educators will regularly participate in many types of in-service education programs.

In general, the forces which in the 1950's gave impetus to inquiries into what is to be taught in the schools and how it should be taught will grow stronger in the 1960's; and there will be an intensive examination of curriculum, organization, instructional technology, and the use of staff. Many communities may well lengthen the school day to eight hours for intermediate and secondary grades, and the school year to 200 days for all. Summer sessions will become increasingly common as a means of expanding and improving programs. Education will be extended both upward and downward: there will be more kindergartens, more community colleges, and more publicly supported technical schools and junior colleges.

Above all, the people of the United States will increasingly recognize that no nation can be stronger than the sum total of the capabilities of its citizens, and that education is the key to the development of those capabilities. And the idea will gain ground that education is a matter of national interest and should be financed by the entire national economy. •

Team Teaching

ROBERT H. ANDERSON

In NEA Journal

AT present there are about 100 communities throughout the United States engaged in one form or another of team teaching; hundreds of other communities are known to be planning toward it.

Though team teaching is new in a certain sense, it is actually an outgrowth of trends and movements in this and other centuries, rooted particularly in previous systems of deploying personnel and arranging pupils' daily programs.

The essential ingredients of team teaching are not only cooperation and collaboration in planning and presentation of the program, but also the assignment of specific leadership and responsibility to career-oriented teachers of superior training and competence. Communication among the staff is also required by the definition of each person's role. In many so-called "team" enterprises, what actually exists is merely a voluntary federation of sovereign teachers enjoying a cooperative-collaborative relationship, but within which no one can be held accountable for performance of the program.

Specifically, a teaching team is a group of several teachers (usually between three and six) jointly responsible for planning, carrying out, and evaluating an educational program for a group of children. For example, a team may consist of four elementary teachers, sharing about 3500-4000 square feet of classroom space and working with about 115 children.

One of the teachers might be a specialist in science and mathematics, another in language arts, a third in social studies, and a fourth in the creative arts. While each specialist might take leadership for planning and perhaps for a major share of the teaching in his area of special competence, all four teachers would be involved in the total instructional program, and there would not be departmentalization in the usual sense.

One of the four, on the strength of special qualifications and training, would be designated as team leader with responsibility for overall program coordination.

Since team teaching is still in its infancy, many questions as to its

Robert H. Anderson is Associate Professor of Education, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Reported from NEA Journal, *L (March 1961), 52–54.*

ultimate form and its merit must necessarily be postponed. An immediate need, however, is to make certain that team teaching is not disadvantageous to children. This applies especially to the elementary school, where the so-called selfcontained classroom has long been considered to be the cause of certain academic and emotional benefits to children.

WHAT EVIDENCE SHOWS

Data thus far is incomplete and tentative, but there is sufficient evidence to justify further exploration and development of team-teaching organization.

Measures of personality growth and of pupil adjustment have been the chief yardstick used in gaging the effect of team teaching on the emotional-personal-social welfare of children.

Reports show that team-teaching results are no less satisfactory than those from typical conventional teaching in elementary and secondary schools. There are slight indications that team teaching is particularly beneficial to markedly advanced and retarded pupils, and also signs that certain children find greater stimulation and security within team-teaching situations.

No support has appeared for the fear (expressed by critics) that some children will suffer emotionally or academically from team teaching.

Teachers on the whole have responded favorably to participation, although much remains to be done in training personnel for leadership roles and in devising efficient procedures for team operation.

A major problem reported by teams (and, we would add, by thousands of other teachers) is finding adequate time for planning and evaluation. Most teams have found themselves overwhelmed by the curriculum problems that come to light as they work together. Adequate guidelines to daily operations and scheduling, to techniques of instructing groups of various sizes, and to role performance are not yet available.

Communication within teams and between teams has yet to be perfected, and because of the frequency and intensity of contact, there are many complex problems of human relations.

Especially in elementary-school teams, it has proved difficult to find and to train persons for the specialist roles in subject areas. Persons with the training, experience, and temperament for leader roles are also scarce.

There is also the question of cost. Although new buildings designed for team teaching probably cost no more per pupil served than conventional buildings, the use of existing facilities generally requires at least minor changes in structure and physical arrangement. Teams usually require greater quantities and varieties of materials, library resources, and equipment than are found in most schools. Some projects do not cost more for total personnel budget, but others involve salary supplements and/or teacher aides. It remains to be seen whether the expenditures pay adequate academic dividends.

Among the arguments supporting team teaching is that the superior teacher can be of much greater influence while still remaining in classroom teaching. Heretofore, the gifted teacher has influenced only a relatively few children, and opportunity for exemplary or semi-supervisory influence over fellow teachers has been virtually nonexistent.

It is also argued that the team-leader role will attract more superior persons to the teaching profession. Reports from pilot projects call attention to the high caliber of recent applications for team positions, lending support to this expectation.

Team teaching theoretically provides a great deal of flexibility and efficiency in the use of time, space, materials, and teaching talents. Team members, not administrators, make decisions concerning the program on the basis of their joint observations and evaluations. Communication is not left to chance, but is required by both process and structure. Specialization is possible and necessary. Instructional groupings of almost any size and composition can be arranged.

Perhaps the greatest potential advantage of team teaching is that it furnishes an impetus to significant curriculum improvement. Only the most naive would expect major gains in curriculum and instruction to result automatically from a change in school organization.

Whatever pattern of organization we choose to adopt or continue, we must realize that the basic problems of instruction will remain to be solved, as will many problems of teacher preparation and competency, adequacy of budgets, and the like. Team teaching does not solve these problems, but it does invigorate teacher concern for them and offers an alternative approach to them.

The full merit of team teaching remains to be measured. It is clear now that several varieties of team teaching are feasible and that advantages once ascribed exclusively to the traditional patterns of organization are enjoyed at least equally by these patterns. All the evidence necessary for a final judgment may require many years of further research. Our obligation in the meanwhile is to maintain an open mind. •

Well-Rounded Teaching

THE college students were asked to comment on the course they had just completed. One student said, "It seems to be a well-rounded course. Everything not given in class during the semester was included in the final examination." —From *The Texas Outlook.*

Exchange of Experts Stimulates Learning

Inter-Departmental Team Teaching in the High School

JULIUS MENACKER

In Chicago Schools Journal

IN recent years, there have been a number of experiments with a team-teaching approach to instruction taking place in the elementary schools. The experimental use of this plan has been sufficiently successful to cause many elementary schools to begin employing it on a small but growing scale. My own experience has shown that a modified form of team teaching is also both feasible and desirable in the high school.

High-school teachers are certified to teach in one subject area only. However, there is much overlapping of subject matter in the high-school curriculum. Although teachers in one area necessarily are familiar with the content of other areas, especially when those areas relate to their own subject, it would be unreasonable to expect them to be expert in those peripheral matters.

This set of circumstances—a curriculum with numerous areas of overlap and a faculty each one of whom is trained especially in one area only—suggests the application of the team-teaching idea in the high school.

As a social-studies teacher working with an economics class, I felt that the students were not getting a broad or deep enough perspective in certain aspects of the course. Not satisfied with my explanation of stocks and bonds, I called on a colleague in the business-education department to supplement my instruction. In discussing the basic elements of stocks and bonds, he presented the subject with a much different approach than I had used, and, as could be expected, with a greater degree of technical competence.

Julius Menacker is Chairman, Social Science Department, Marshall High School, Chicago, Illinois. Reported from Chicago Schools Journal, *XLII (December 1960), 122-24.*

I found that my students not only learned the material much better but also demonstrated increased interest and motivation in the entire field of economics. I believe the chief reasons for this happy outcome were: the bringing of a fresh outlook to familiar material; the broadening and deepening of the students' base of understanding; and the competence with which this expert performed.

United States history is another example where a "team" approach has much to offer. In studying the period of nationalism, the history teacher can point out the influence of the writings of Thoreau, Emerson, Whitman, and others on the mainstream of American thought and society; but how much more enriching it would be to allow the students the experience of getting a glimpse of these men through the eyes of the teacher of literature. The net result for the student would be a greatly increased appreciation of United States history and the men who made it.

If the English teacher can be of aid to the history teacher, the reverse is also true. To an English class engaged in an examination of the "lost generation," the authors and their works would be more meaningful and alive if presented from the broad historical perspective supplied by the social-studies teacher.

The possibilities inherent in the close relationship of mathematics and science are so numerous that this combination stands out as a shining example of how inter-departmental team teaching can be used. The situation may well exist where the physics teacher, approaching a problem from the viewpoint of the scientist, would be unaware that certain mathematical intricacies have been passed over too quickly, or not explained enough for some students. A mathematics teacher, if brought in at a point where mathematical content is particularly heavy, could greatly help such students, due to his expert grasp of how to put across mathematical concepts to a class.

There are almost endless possibilities for the sharing of special knowledge between departments. Just a few of the additional possibilities are English and business education; history and science; history and the fine arts; and English and foreign languages.

Those interested in trying inter-departmental team teaching should seek occasions for the use of this technique with the following idea in mind. In addition to the added accuracy and depth of treatment which would be provided by an expert is the vitality of the new, fresh approach as a stimulus to student thinking and learning. Both increased accuracy and heightened stimulus *can* be expected.

There are some dangers that need pointing out. First, the use of inter-departmental teaching should not be overdone. It should be restricted to those few times during the semester when it would be of great advantage. This technique should also be kept as free as possible of formal administrative apparatus. The program should work on a flexible, informal basis whereby two teachers agree on a suitable time for presentation. The only administrative responsibility might be to see that classes are properly supervised in the absence of the regular teacher, and, even here, informal teacher arrangements can often prove the best course.

•

The Face of Africa Has Changed

New Schools for Africa

GEORGES FRADIER

In The Unesco Courier

Georges Fradier is a roving correspondent for The Unesco Courier. *Reported from* The Unesco Courier, *(February 1961), 21–23, 27.*

THE nations of tropical Africa range from the old empire of Ethiopia to the smaller territories on the west coast which were carved out in the course of colonial partitions. They have striking social, industrial, and cultural differences depending on whether they were influenced by Europe or the Arab world. Yet despite all the differences, every one of these countries is today launched on an extraordinary undertaking—the provision of full education to hundreds of thousands of children whose fathers never so much as saw a school.

Never before has there been so rapid a development in the field of education. In 10 years the number of schools and pupils in certain regions has increased by 300 percent. At the end of the second world war it would have been hard to foresee that an independent republic called Ghana would have more than 600,000 pupils at school by 1960; or that there would be 130,000 school children in Senegal and Mali.

Fifteen years ago, eyebrows would have been raised at the suggestion that Addis Ababa would possess a great university college and that the equipment of the lecture rooms, libraries, and laboratories of the universities of Ibadan, Accra, Leopoldville, Fourah Bay, and Dakar would put that of some European cities to shame. These countries were forced to do without any universities at all up until a few years ago.

Similarly, striking examples of educational development are to be found in other African countries. What is significant is that most of these schools were hardly dreamed of a generation ago. It is not a mere advance in education but an acceleration so dynamic that it is virtually a creation from the ground up.

This explains why African educational authorities are ready to discuss freely and optimistically the problem of the number of children still not attending school. In certain cases the figures are gigantic. In Ethiopia, Somalia, Mali, the Niger, and the Upper Volta, it is not yet possible to provide primary education for even a tenth of the school-age children. Schooling is available for fewer than three children in 10 in Sierra Leone, Liberia, Dahomey, and Tanganyika. Even those countries which, educationally speaking, are the richest and most favorably placed will have to take Seven-League-Boot strides to reach the goal of education for all children in any way comparable to that of Europe and America.

The largest cities of Africa compare favorably with equivalent cities elsewhere in terms of comfort, amenities, architecture, and transport. Generally speaking, there is no shortage of schools in these capitals, or rather there is a shortage only to the extent that the cities grow too fast; it is not easy to provide for the education of shantytown children.

A RURAL PEOPLE

Yet Africa remains and will continue to remain rural; the vast majority of its people will continue to live and work in innumerable villages which seem all the more scattered due to the scarcity of roads. Education is still impossible for most young Africans unless they are ready to travel great distances or quit their homes altogether—a solution which is accepted as a last resort for boys but rarely for girls. The situation is particularly serious in sparsely populated regions, and in vast areas where there are less than 12 inhabitants per square mile.

Underpopulation is disastrous in its effect on the development of an effective and complete network of schools. Educational authorities, however limited the funds available, are always ready to provide a school and teachers if asked to do so by a town with a population of 10,000, but they admit helplessness when asked to provide the same facilities for 50 villages of 200 inhabitants.

These 50 villages are not demanding that someone be sent at great expense to build schools. During the conference of education ministers and directors which was organized by Unesco at Addis Ababa in February 1960, the representative of Somalia declared: "Let us leave aside the building problem. If necessary, a tree is enough to prop a blackboard up and to provide a little shade. It is the teacher who makes the school, not the building. The real problem is the problem of teachers."

Today, the equipment, the machines, and the material are arriving much faster than the teachers. Already the lack of qualified teachers has created an alarming situation. Teachers are needed and it is to be hoped that all nations in a position to send teaching staff abroad will heed the appeal that the countries of Africa have made.

This help, however generous it may be, will not be enough. So long as independent Africa relies on outside aid, it will not obtain the complete educational system it needs and wants. Future bilateral or multilateral assistance would best be devoted primarily to the *training* of African secondary teachers for general and technical education.

In all of tropical Africa there was only one training college for technical and vocational teachers as of January 1961. As to teachers of literature and science, they must come from the universities, which are only now beginning to provide the graduates needed for industry, hospitals, the big plantations, and the civil service.

It is urgent that teacher training be speeded up by every possible means if a very serious educational crisis is to be avoided.

There was full awareness of this situation when the ministers and directors of education of the countries of tropical Africa met at Addis Ababa last February. They made an urgent appeal to Unesco for help in the creation of regional teacher-training institutions.

Unesco has answered this appeal. Its program for 1961-1962 provides for the establishment of two regional centers which will train educators for future teacher-training colleges and also to carry out educational research. Furthermore, through the United Nations Special Fund, Unesco will be able to help in the development of secondary education. For example, in Nigeria it is proposed to establish a federal teacher-training college for secondary-school teachers, with the fund contributing $800,000 and Nigeria $1,800,000.

It is a gigantic task confronting the countries of tropical Africa. Many believe that, once the basic essentials are achieved, education will develop automatically and quickly with the smoothness of a well-oiled machine. The truth is that most of the countries are going to be at wit's end to provide teachers for the thousands of schools that need to be built.

Independence in Africa has seen the new countries buckle down to the problems of education without delay. The governments are perfectly aware that education, in the present circumstances of their national life, calls for the same effort and vigilance as social stability and economic prosperity and they do not hesitate to say so bluntly and often.

It may be trite and hackneyed to say that the future of each country depends on the education given the younger generation, but in Africa today it is being said with firm insistence. It would indeed be a pity if the states or organizations responsible for the aid offered to these countries were to think only in terms of industry, equipment, and finance and were to overlook the fact that there is no better investment than expenditure on behalf of education. •

IN Northern Nigeria it is estimated that there are about 20,000 blind children and only two schools for them. In the Katsina area alone there are about 1,000 blind children. This district has been chosen by the Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind as the base for an experiment in teaching the blind in normal primary schools.

Some Typical Questions about

Teaching Machines

ROBERT C. SNIDER

In The Nation's Schools

Robert C. Snider is Assistant Executive Secretary of the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA. Reported from The Nation's Schools, *LXVII (February 1961), 70–73.*

THE present great interest in teaching machines and programed instruction is symbolic of at least three major forces acting on the schools of this country.

The first and most obvious force is the intense public interest in improving our schools. Viewed in another way, this force can be seen as a general dissatisfaction with the present state of American education. In this climate of concern over our schools, the idea of a "teaching machine" has generated much interest.

A second major force creating much interest in "machine solutions" to educational problems is our rapidly developing technology. The United States has attained a very high level of technology in nearly every area of human activity—with the possible exceptions of the railroads and the schools. A technological society with data processing devices, information retrieval systems, and automated factories can be expected to look with favor on the development of teaching machines and to provide leadership for their development and acceptance in the schools. This is happening.

A third force, not so obvious but far more awesome, is the pressure of our projections into the future. We know what is happening to our population and the seemingly impossible problems this alone poses for the schools in a few short years. Add to this the ever-increasing need for education in a society that is rapidly eliminating its market for unskilled workers. And to this must be added the fact that the sum of human knowledge (the staff of our curriculum) is increasing at such a rate that some authorities maintain that this sum will soon begin to double in something less than every decade.

When these three forces are considered with only some of their dramatic implications for the future of education, there is little surprise that the idea of a "teaching machine" is attracting wide interest in America today.

Before proceeding to some typical questions that administrators and teachers are asking about auto-instruction, let us first agree on some terminology.

Teaching machines.—This term is in wide use, despite the fact that auto-instruction is a more accurate term and one that is apt to meet with less semantic opposition. Basically the machine is a device for presenting to the individual student a *program* of material to be learned. The machines are designed for the individual student rather than for mass instruction and they require active response from the student. These are the characteristics that distinguish the teaching machines from the traditional form of audio-visual equipment.

Programed textbook.—The programed text presents in proper sequence the discrete steps, or questions, that make up the program. Although it has much in common with the machine, the programed text does not prevent the student from looking at the answer prior to answering the question, nor does it control other aspects of student behavior—activities that can be taken into account with machines. Some authorities maintain that this type of "cheating" has little effect on learning, especially at advanced educational levels.

Programed instruction.—The development of technics for the preparation of programed materials is an important research endeavor going on at the present time. There are special skills involved in preparing subject matter for programed instruction. Material must be broken down into small, discrete units and arranged in a sequence that facilitates learning. Materials are not now being produced in sufficient quantities to meet the teaching potential of machines now on the market.

Research consideration today is also being given to establishing standards, since today programs often are produced in a form that cannot be used in all existing machines.

THE TEACHER'S ROLE

Will teaching machines replace teachers? The motion picture projector and before that the printed book caused this same question to be raised. To date, nothing has replaced the skilled teacher, and when we seriously consider the present goals of education, the likelihood of a completely automated educational system seems foolhardy.

It does seem reasonable to predict that the role of the classroom teacher will change as more and more technological devices find acceptance. As for the pupil, he can expect a large measure of individual attention—some of it from electronic tutors—but more importantly, from teachers who will have the time to devote themselves more fully to the humanistic aspects of teaching while the mechanical aids perform the drudgery of endlessly imparting information.

Where can one acquire information on teaching machines? The most comprehensive work in print is *Teaching Machines and Programed Learning: A Source Book,* edited by A. A. Lumsdaine and Robert Glaser and published late in 1960 by the Department of

Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA. This volume brings together the major papers published since 1926 and contains a large collection of research abstracts. *Teaching Machines: An Annotated Bibliography* by Edward B. Fry and others, published a year ago as an 80-page supplement to the *A-V Communication Review*, contains more than 120 annotations and a listing of teaching machine manufacturers.

What should our schools be doing about teaching machines now? After becoming informed, the administrator and his staff may want to embark on an experimental program of their own. This can be inexpensive if commercially programed texts are used and the introductory steps are limited to using only a few machines with available programs. Costs will soar if the school attempts its own programing. At present, most authorities agree that use of teaching machines in schools should be only on an experimental basis.

What subjects lend themselves best to programing for teaching machines? In theory, any subject that can be verbalized can be programed. Such subjects as arithmetic, mathematics, and the sciences are easier to program since they must be taught in a readily identifiable sequence. Most available programs are in these subject areas.

At what grade level are teaching machines most effective? Lack of evidence at the present time delays answering this question. Most of the research and programing has been limited to college and adult levels. It is becoming obvious that a properly programed subject can be taught successfully at a lower age level. Also, some promising research has been done with preverbal machines.

Will teaching machines or programed textbooks dominate the future of auto-instruction in the schools? The question is premature, but it now seems that both methods of presenting programed instruction have unique advantages and disadvantages. The programed books are relatively inexpensive and in some cases can be reused; they do sacrifice some control over student behavior and the record of responses to the program is relatively meager. Many machine programs can be reused almost indefinitely. A case can be made for some machines on a cost basis alone although they do have other unique advantages. It is likely that "compromise machines," simple and inexpensive, will be available soon for further experimentation.

What effect will the current interest in auto-instruction have on the traditional textbook? Probably a great deal. The president of a large textbook publishing house recently commented that the machine has focused attention on the same sort of precision and reinforcement in independent learning that the selfteaching workbooks and textbooks have long been attempting with varying degrees of success. •

A Baker's Dozen List of Suggestions

Guesses Don't Pay Off In School Elections

OTIS A. CROSBY

In Michigan Education Journal

CAN boards of education be satisfied with their public-relations efforts when figures show that 23 out of every 100 school bond and/or millage issues failed during the first six months of 1960? There was a slight improvement for the second half of 1960 (through November) but election results show that the percent of failures is still high—much too high.

This poses a serious question for administrators. Just what is being done to prevent failure and achieve a really high percent of voter approval? The seriousness of this dwells in the fact that schools must have more money.

The seriousness is further exposed in these questions: What are administrators doing to surmount the important business of insuring voter support at the polls? What do they know about the *how*, *when*, and *why* public apathy sets in? What do they know about what prompts a majority of negative votes and widespread opposition in the district?

Nothing less than a full knowledge of the science of mass persuasion will do the job. With democracy putting today's taxpayer squarely in the driver's seat, the school bond or millage ballot calls for a modern, dramatic, well-timed selling job on the part of school officials.

Facts show that a number of school administrators who experienced at least one financing campaign in 1960 have a serious shortage of technical knowledge required to obtain public support in a finance crisis at the polls. Some of the superintendents were asked this question: "If you were to be faced with another bond or millage election in the future, what would you be likely to do differently and, likewise, what would you probably do more of in planning and promoting your campaign?"

More than eight out of ten of the superintendents polled who had experienced voter approval of increased financial school finance measures replied, "We would promote our campaign just as we did the last one." This reply persists in spite of constantly changing conditions.

Otis A. Crosby is Assistant Director of Information Services, Detroit Board of Education, Michigan. Reported from Michigan Education Journal, *XXXVIII (March 1, 1961), 457–59.*

Is this good administrative logic? Locally, school taxes have gone up as a result of the last vote. The cost of living has increased; work, especially for blue-collared persons, is on an unsteady calendar; national and world money standards are shaky; and news of defeated school bond issues influences negatively the minds of local voters. In the meantime, some of the old friends of the schools have left the district and their replacements are new citizens of unknown attitudes. Will methods used effectively in past campaigns be adequate when the next call is made for more school taxes? Does success in one instance assuredly mean success in another?

And for those school boards and administrators whose finance plebiscites failed, the story of strategy, of timing, and of general promotion techniques for the next campaign is even more complex—more of a serious gamble with real, deep-etched tragedy a possibility. Failure has a tendency to beget failure.

From election winners and losers alike there has been an uncritical, second-guessing type of analysis offered in explanation of vote results. This kind of thinking, all too common among school boards and school heads, points to a dead-end street.

Knowing (not guessing) the public's voting habits involves a great deal more than the simple words imply. Here is a baker's dozen of fertile observations, suggestions, and tried-and-proven aids for planning, promoting, and analyzing school finance campaigns. These aids have been selected from reports of superintendents and from a search of campaign studies completed in several cities throughout the nation.

SUGGESTIONS

1. There is widespread evidence that school bond and/or millage elections are not attracting an appreciable number of parents of school children. This spotlights the need for a year-round program of school interpretation, including something of shortcomings and needs.

2. Calendaring the election to avoid certain months when public tax resistance is high is important. Scheduling elections for months when the public is known to be more kindly disposed toward schools is logical. Research and experience alike point to specific aid in each area.

3. The appeal for additional financing may effectively be built around the curriculum and what is planned for all children. Benefits from the "new money" should extend to all parts of the district. It must be made evident to all voters.

4. Citizens' committees result in involving a lot of people, and that means schooling great numbers in the dramatic and the factual aspects.

5. Very careful consideration must be given to the "all-out" campaign as contrasted to the "selective-contact" approach. Facts based on opinion polling and other

evidence may suggest which is the better gamble in your district.

6. Face-to-face contacts by board members and school personnel is a preferred approach from the standpoint of "selling." A few key citizens grounded in the facts of the campaign are invariably effective, especially with the business and professional publics.

7. "What's being done for my child?" is the universal question for which there must be satisfying answers.

8. Avoid technicalities, professional jargon, and statistical talk. It won't be understood by most people. Attempts at repeating the story by friends to friends will but add to the confusion.

9. Campaign literature must be kept extremely simple. Emphasis may best be placed on benefits to be derived rather than the costs assessed.

10. *Intensive* work with certain "publics" has proved profitable in many school districts.

11. The time is fast approaching when this business of mass persuasion, of asking the public for more tax dollars, will demand professional counsel. In the meantime, a mastery of the fundamentals of salesmanship and applied psychology will help.

12. Several good books and brochures on organizing and promoting school finance campaigns are available for the professional library.

13. Second guessing in this day of sharp competition for the worker's dollar relegates opinion to the back burner to simmer. A *knowledge* of public understanding and misunderstanding, as well as public wants, calls for first-hand study (not guesses) on the part of superintendents. Such knowledge can be had only by face-to-face inquiry or through answers recorded in a printed questionnaire. Factual information of citizen knowledge and reaction obtained before the campaign is especially valuable. An analytical poll after the vote does much to analyze just what was effective or ineffective. It also breaks down into statistics just who voted. Opinion polling is a definite *must* if campaigns are to be planned and conducted on anything resembling a scientific basis. •

Income and Taxes

- There are several ways in which to apportion the family income, all of them unsatisfactory.—*Robert Benchley.*
- Every nation finds it difficult to balance a budget at the end of a sword.—From *Banking.*
- It's easy for the well-to-do to be thrifty; they already have the things the rest of us want.—*Corona Independent.*
- There are bigger things in life than money. For instance, bills.—From *Service for Company Publications.*

Does It Breed Spigots?

What's Wrong with the Advanced Placement Program?

JACK N. ARBOLINO

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals

SINCE its inception, the Advanced Placement Program has been singled out and sung to, and part of my job for the past two years has been to do some of the singing—usually, I should add, as a small voice in a strong chorus. Maledictions have been few. Such diverse educational spokesman as Bowles, Conant, and Rickover have praised it. Perhaps most important of all, school and college teachers and administrators all over the country have not only endorsed it and become volunteer workers for the cause, but they have manifestly appropriated to themselves a private sense of responsibility for its welfare. I know no higher praise.

Is it really worth such high marks? Is it, as the president of Brown University described it, "the most promising thing that has happened in American education in years"? If it is, it can stand a harshly critical look. Here are the charges against it:

A. It is undemocratic, a money-making scheme of the College Board, a subversive attempt by the colleges to re-establish dictatorial practices.

B. It is used by schools and colleges to *look* rather than to *be* good.

Jack N. Arbolino is Director of the Advanced Placement Program, College Entrance Examination Board. Reported from The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, *XXXXV (February 1961), 28–32.*

C. It accents credit and, by overemphasizing testmanship, may lead to the breeding of a new race of spigots.

D. It limits the growth of the curriculum, unduly influences it, and restricts experimentation.

E. Identification of the superior student is difficult at best; early identification is dangerous.

May I be forgiven for trying to deal with all these charges—the few false and unimportant and the remainder valid and serious—at one time? Those listed under B, C, D, and E have validity; those in A have none and the latter will do for a start.

Advanced Placement is, in a sense, a program for the elite, but it is hardly undemocratic. There is varied and abundant testimony that establishment of Advanced Placement in a school raises the standards throughout that school and that, by radiating out and down, Advanced Placement benefits all classes.

The President's Science Advisory Committee has stated: "In a democracy, we should provide each individual with the opportunity to develop his own talents to the fullest. It would be difficult to think of anything less democratic than a system that sacrifices in any way the stimulation of the bright student, either to learn more or progress faster through the prescribed work." Perhaps the most succinct expression of this point of view is: "There is nothing so unequal as the equal treatment of unequals."

LOSES MONEY

The matter of making money is easily put to rest. The Program lost $150,000 last year; it will lose about $200,000 this year. The College Board supports it with the hope that, through candidate volume and continued economies and improvements, we may reach a break-even point in the future.

To complete the false and easily refuted charges, it should be made clear that the schools are running the show. Schools do the work and the colleges benefit. It is true that certain colleges have shown leadership, but this has consisted largely in their accepting one basic premise of the Program: College work completed in school deserves college credit. In large measure, the colleges have been the reluctant partner. Rather than dictating, they have served.

The valid charges begin with B. If a comprehensive school is judged *only* by the number of candidates it prepares for Advanced Placement examinations, if other students and other courses are neglected, if in the quest for reputation a school pursues knowledge by description rather than by acquaintance, performance will be sacrificed to appearance. It is true that the Program provides a way to look good as well as a way to be good.

The college that jumps on the bandwagon of Advanced Placement without truly participating and understanding it is serving neither itself nor the Program. The school that offers Advanced Placement courses and then, to rack up scores, dissuades those students of whom it is not sure from taking the examinations, subverts the ideal. One argument, then, that can be made is that, because it brings prestige, the Program lends itself to exploitation to those who seek reputation.

As for the C charges—credit, testmanship, and intellectual spigots—they are serious. I know no way to eliminate the bugaboo of credit. Academic bookkeeping is an integral part of American education. While this system lasts, the program must conform. Study *is* its own reward, but we must deal in common currency.

To guard against spigotry, the examining committees take great pains. Course descriptions are general, and each year the examinations are changed. Nevertheless, the examination grade is the most important factor in the eyes of the colleges. Again, as in the case of credit, the Program falls heir to the ills as well as to the attributes of our national system. In our over-all educational system, we count. We pay off on grades, and so does the Advanced Placement Program.

The D charges—the constricting influences on the curriculum—seem to me the most serious problems the Program engenders. Although the traditional subjects in which Advanced Placement operates are varied and balanced, as the program grows there may be a tendency for participating schools to hew too closely to the line. In addition, the substantial experimentation that is going on in physics, mathematics, and other subjects may be inhibited by the Program. Because of the prestige the Program brings, it is unlikely that a successfully participating school would be eager to embark on new courses or new ways of teaching old courses.

It must be noted that the Advanced Placement Committee is aware of the influence that the Program may exert and it is fearful lest, worthy and important as it is, the Program fix curriculum. To this end the book, *Advanced Placement Program: Course Descriptions* carries paragraphs stating clearly an awareness of the diverse nature of the American secondary-school curriculum and states specifically that the Program is not designed to remain static.

The last serious charge, E, concerns selection. We must never close doors on our young people. We must select, we must try to identify the superior student early, but we must always be ready to say we were wrong. Gumption Quotient is at least as important as Intelligence Quotient.

A program like Advanced Placement is greatly dependent for success on the caliber of the guidance counselor. He must sift, study, and constantly assess his over- and under-achievers, his late bloomers and early faders, the rebels, the flashes, the strong, the quiet, and the main-chance hustlers. The apalling isolation of the elite, which is too frequently a hallmark of European education, must not be allowed to occur in the American high school. On the other hand, pedagogical sentimentality must not dissuade us from trying to identify our best students.

It seems to me that the charges discussed above constitute the bulk of the criticism that has been directed at the Program. It is still worth high marks. It continues to encourage schools and colleges to work together, it tends to eliminate waste of time and duplication of studies, and, perhaps most important, it stimulates students and teachers to higher achievement. Naturally, there are problems. Nevertheless, the Advanced Placement Program provides a way to strengthen American education. And the evidence shows that it is working. •

"*That Eternal Rarity, a Great Individual*"

William James' Impact on American Education

HAROLD A. LARRABEE
In School and Society

LAST year marked the 50th anniversary of the death of William James (1842-1910). His influence on American education, though overshadowed by that of John Dewey, was greater than many have supposed.

It was an influence exerted not directly through specific writings on educational subjects, but rather through the impact of a vibrant and liberating personality making itself felt in many areas of American life. It was James' pioneering example which, more than any other single factor, helped "to make the world safe" for the pragmatic reformers succeeding him.

Today it has become fashionable to disparage James as the outmoded champion of romantic individualism and buoyant optimism in dealing with the concrete issues of daily living. He never hesitated to tackle the *Lebensphilosophie* (philosophy of life) or to make his teachings available in popular as well as academic form. When he spoke or wrote, it always was with such vital warmth that he had many thousands of listeners and readers outside college and university circles. In the often-quoted words of the late President Lowell of Harvard, "Philosophy is no good unless it is hot. James always made it hot."

Harold A. Larrabee is Professor Emeritus of Philosophy, Union College, Schenectady, N.Y. Reported from School and Society, *LXXXIX (February 25, 1961), 84–86.*

In all things educational, James was the enemy of convention and formalism. The gifted James had little patience with the cut-and-dried methods of instruction. "Results," he once wrote, "should not be too voluntarily aimed at or too busily thought of."

It was John Dewey who connected James' remarkable versatility and profound interest in all things human with "the nonacademic character of his education," which enabled him to "escape the academic conditions that too often have a benumbing effect." Dewey attributed the latter to "our tendency to exaggerate the phase of technique, of formal skill, in quasi-prescribed lines of thinking."

As is well known, James' childhood tutelage by "educative ladies" was followed by an everchanging series of tutors and private schools as the nomadic, well-endowed Jameses traveled from New York to London, Paris, Boulogne-sur-mer, Geneva, and Bonn. The greatest educative influence of all, of course, was the animated family circle presided over by Henry James the elder, whose ample inheritance and domestic tastes enabled him to devote himself to the upbringing of his five children.

Confronting the question of going to college, the 16-year-old youth wrote to Edgar Van Winkle, then a student at Union College (from which the elder Henry James had been graduated in 1830), "When I left you in Schenectady, it was with the almost certainty of becoming a fellow man with you at Union College. When I spoke to my father about it, I found he was not in favor of my going to any college whatsoever. He says colleges are hot beds of corruption where it's impossible to learn anything."

This paternal opposition to institutionalism in any form was sufficiently relaxed three years later to enable William to enter the new Lawrence Scientific School at Harvard and later the medical school, where he received his only "earned" degree.

Later in life, James' detestation of "academicism" displayed itself in his enthusiastic hospitality toward unorthodox educators such as Thomas Davidson and a whole succession of mavericks known as "James' cranks." But the strongest blow which he struck against what he called "the Mandarin disease" was his famous essay, "The Ph.D. Octopus," in which he denounced the possible coming about of a state of things "in which no man of science or letters will be accounted respectable unless some kind of badge or diploma is stamped on him, and in which bare personality will be a mark of outcast estate."

At the same time that James was throwing down his challenges to formalism in education, he was engaged in erecting a new science of psychology that was to have profound effects on education.

Before James, American psychology had been a branch of philosophy, largely speculative in character, called "Philosophy of Mind." The publication of *Principles of Psychology* in 1890 changed all that by placing the science "foursquare on a physiological foundation."

The frank empiricism of the book came as a shock and as a revelation: Here was "raw, unverbalized life" regarded as "more of a revealer" of truth than "*logos* or discursive thought." It was a radically motor psychology; its base was biological. But James was not engaged in reducing psychology to biology; his concern was with the whole living, acting man. In scintillating style, he portrayed "the universe with the lid off," a baffling mixture of the stable and the unstable, the recurrent and the novel, and the rational and the irrational, all "lending poignancy to existence" and giving it "the zest, the tingle, the excitement of reality."

Two years after the "Principles" appeared, James was asked to give "a few public lectures on psychology to the Cambridge teachers," later published as *Talks to Teachers*. He warned, "Psychology is not something from which you can deduce definite programs and schemes and methods of instruction for immediate classroom use. Psychology is a science and teaching is an art, and sciences never generate arts directly of themselves. An intermediary inventive mind must make the application by using its originality . . . To know psychology is absolutely no guarantee that we shall be good teachers."

EXTOLS EXCELLENCE

As a Harvard professor, James made many pronouncements concerning the aims of higher education. Pragmatism so often has been criticized for neglecting excellence that some may be surprised to discover that James regarded "a sense for human superiority" as the very mark of the educated man. Higher education, he said, should "set up in us a lasting relish for the better kind of man, a loss of appetite for mediocrities, and a disgust for cheap jacks."

In these days, with punch-cards and computers finding favor with some educational administrators, it may be well to recall James' passionate combination of individualism and pluralism together with his deep antipathy to the sociologist's preoccupation with averages, "with its obligatory undervaluing of individual differences," which he held to be "the most pernicious and immoral of fatalisms." Long before beatniks appeared, James diagnosed the creeping paralysis of will that was causing "an irremediable flatness to come over the world," and sought to counteract it by drawing on fresh sources of energy and moral courage. As a militant liberal, he fought against imperialism and war long before such causes were popular.

It was this attitude of eagerness in confronting a changing, challenging world full of risk and adventure which was James' greatest gift to American education, for it altered the orientation of philosophy from past to future, "from abstractions and insufficiency, from verbal solutions . . . fixed principles, closed systems, and pretended absolutes and origins . . . towards concreteness and adequacy, towards facts, towards action, and towards power." In education, this meant turning away from tradition and theory toward practice and experiment. This found a ready response in a people who had shown a long-standing propensity for getting along without theory until after some scheme of theirs had proved to work.

James summoned his fellow men not only to participation in the conflicts of his own time, but to the endless struggle against ignorance, vulgarity, bigness, pedantry, and moral apathy and inertia. Above all, James set us an example of "that eternal rarity, a great individual." •

What Are the Limitations?

Problem Solving as a Teaching Method

HENRY J. HERMANOWICZ

In Educational Leadership

MANY curriculum theories for elementary as well as secondary education exemplify a primacy of method within the proposed school program. This method usually consists of some form of problem solving procedure as the basis for teaching-learning activities.

The following paragraphs will briefly describe the source of problem solving as a teaching method, explore some of the significant contributions of this method, and raise some questions concerning the applications or limitations of this method in organizing learning activities throughout the curriculum.

In the book, *How We Think*, John Dewey wrote that learning is learning to think. Recognizing the existence of many ways of thinking, Dewey insisted, "The better way of thinking is reflective thinking."

This reflective thinking, according to Dewey, involved a process of translation "from a situation in which there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled, harmonious."

Dewey made a logical analysis of this concept of reflective thought by describing five phases that he considered essential functions of this particular mental process. It is difficult to understand whether Dewey intended his logical analysis of reflective thought to become the Titan of method that exists in many curriculum proposals today. However, he did write in *Democracy and Education*: "While we may speak, without error, of the method of thought, the important thing is that thinking is the method of an educational experience. The essentials of method are therefore identical with the essentials of reflection."

Dewey's writings opened the door to a variety of interpretations related to problem solving as a teaching method. Subsequent developments in cognitive learning theory seemed to add support to the refinement and application of this method. Perhaps it was inevitable that educators would try to derive new teaching techniques

Henry J. Hermanowicz is Assistant Professor of Education, Illinois State Normal University, Normal.

Reported from Educational Leadership, *XVIII (February 1961), 299–306.*

by their inferences from Dewey's philosophy and from Gestalt psychology.

Among the more distinguished and influential interpreters of Dewey was William H. Kilpatrick. With combined intellectual and emotive appeal, Kilpatrick's ideas concerning "The Good Life" and "The Project Method" excited the imagination of many educators. In a sense, Kilpatrick was providing a do-it-yourself kit for teachers ready to react against stagnant teaching methods then existing.

Dewey's phases of reflective thought have manifested themselves in many other educational proposals. Alberty transformed these phases of reflective thought into a type of group problem solving which he considers "the emerging concept of general method" in education. Klausmeier, Dresden, Davis, and Wittich outline a general pattern of teacher-pupil planning for the elementary school which is similar to Dewey's concept of reflection. The implication behind these proposals appears to be that all learning evolves from the method of problem solving.

Undoubtedly, the applications of Dewey's problem-solving method did much to revitalize the nation's classrooms. Even in its most stylized form, it was an improvement on the assign-study-recite classroom techniques. The new methodology also gave educators some hope for helping children learn to deal with a variety of problems and situations as an important part of their education in a rapidly changing culture.

RAISES QUESTIONS

Without attempting to negate these important contributions to education, perhaps some questions should be raised concerning the omnipotence of the problem-solving method. Should all learning depend on a student's exposure to problematical situations? Does all learning involve conscious inquiry? Assuming that the better kind of thought process involves elements in Dewey's concept of reflective thought, should these elements be translated into a general teaching method? What limitations would the use of a general problem-solving method as "the" teaching program impose on learners?

There is some experimental evidence which seems to indicate that it is possible for negative learnings to result when students learn to follow one procedure to solve a variety of problems. This possibility represents a serious indictment against transforming Dewey's phases of reflective thought into a teaching method even on a general level. Curriculum literature often displays this supportive evidence creating unequivocally positive impressions of a problem-solving teaching procedure. It seems desirable to be cognizant of the negative aspects.

A study by A. S. Luchins indicated that students taught to follow a particular method or procedure were actually being taught not to think in their problem solving. Students in the experiment usually applied the same procedure when given a different type of problem. Furthermore, giving these students instructions to generalize a method of solution had a tendency to increase their "set" or inflexibility toward attacking and solving problems.

An experiment by Harold M. Schroeder and Julian B. Rotter demonstrated that students who worked on a variety of problems where no single attack was successful learned to be flexible, while students who had continued success with one method used it rigidly even where it was incorrect.

To think of problem solving as a general method may be a mistake insofar as the learners are concerned. In an article summarizing recent research on problem solving as classroom teaching method, R. E. Gross and F. J. McDonald state: "When the focus of interest in investigation has been on the general methodology of the problem solver, it has been consistently found that the subjects tend to use a variety of general methodologies."

In view of the foregoing, it may be unwise to consider all learnings as a form of problem solving in organizing content or potential learning experiences in the curriculum. It is this writer's belief that a significant function of a school program should be to help students learn to deal with a wide variety of important problems. However, it is questionable to assume that the total curriculum should be organized around problematic situations or as problems to be solved.

In addition, the function of problem solving in the school program might not best be implemented in terms of "a" teaching method. Despite the apparent built-in flexibility of "the problem-solving method" as classroom technique, it has dangers of being an orthodox procedure in itself.

A wide variety of teaching methods should be employed to help students develop their own abilities in decision making. The teacher's role is to help students seek relevant knowledge, understand important values, analyze possible alternatives, and project probable consequences involved in dealing with different problems. This will foster the type of critical thinking that was Dewey's original goal in emphasizing the development of reflective thought.

The trouble with using Dewey's problem solving as a step-by-step teaching method is that the application of the method can defeat the purpose for having students deal with problems. The gradual passing of the recitation as "the" method in educational practice should not result in another orthodoxy as a replacement. The mechanized application of problem solving as a teaching method can become a thought inhibiting rather than a thought provoking device; whereas, problem solving should help develop originality and diversity in student thinking. ●

A Vantage Point for the Future

Forty Years of Change in the Elementary School

MARK MURFIN

In The National Elementary Principal

“FORTY years” holds a different meaning for each of us, depending on our vantage point. Perhaps the great majority of today’s elementary - school administrators were pupils in a classroom in 1921. To some younger principals, 1921 is beyond memory and must truly be regarded as “ancient history.”

Each must recall 40 years ago in the elementary school in light of his own experience and perspective. In retrospect, we must concede the unreliability of memory, but we may also rationalize that the intervening years have brought important changes and significant improvements—both in the schools and in society as a whole.

In broad terms, the major changes in the elementary school during the past four decades have developed in a setting of great social and economic change. Always a bit conservative, American schools have often lagged behind society, but they have been influenced significantly by violent social and economic changes. The automobile, a mobile population, high standards of material living, working mothers, television, and increased leisure are illustrative of new ingredients in the complex social recipe for rearing children. Industrialization, urbanization, and a growing population have been significant in elementary-school reorganization and administration.

Mark Murfin is Chairman, Department of Education, University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida. Reported from The National Elementary Principal, *XL (February 1961), 8–12.*

In surveying the changes, it is impossible to distinguish cause from effect. The elementary school is interwoven in the “warp and woof” of American life.

Changes in the school’s physical plant and equipment are evident from observation. The Rip Van Winkle school administrator of 1921 would marvel at the increased size of school buildings and the space for work and play. He would not recognize his office suite with banks of filing cabinets, a teacher’s lounge, public-address system, and secretary, for these were nonexistent in most schools of an earlier day.

Improved transportation, urbanization, and a multiplied school population, coupled with economic prosperity, set the stage for new school plant construction. The principle that learning is affected by one's attitude toward learning and the atmosphere in which it takes place now extends to school construction. Design, furniture, equipment, and color reflect the experience and research related to children. Austere, institutional buildings are being replaced by attractive, functional plants.

Important innovations in plant construction are evident, but one must follow children into the classroom and see them at work to discern other fundamental changes.

Children and human nature have changed very little during the last 40 years. Yet everywhere we see new interpretations and applications of the psychology of learning. Remembering to caution ourselves not to assume that all schools or all teachers have accepted and practice these ideas, and recognizing the educational lag and the wide diversity in classroom procedures, let us list some general trends in the classroom.

CHANGING CONCEPTS

Conceptions of the educative process and of the teacher's tasks have changed. Recognition that children learn and are not "taught" in the usual meaning of the word has altered classroom procedures. Development of this concept to the point of understanding that learning is an individual matter has shaken the foundations of the traditional mass-instruction, textbook, skill-drill, memorization - of - facts elementary school.

There is no conflict between the modern school and the necessity for children to be well informed, to gain much knowledge, and to have skills. The change in emphasis is towards recognizing that attainment of these objectives is individual and that learning is best achieved, whenever possible, through problem solving, use of children's interest, and actual situations in which knowledge is functional. Real learning is a process of changing behavior.

Acceptance of these viewpoints about learning has altered the pattern of teacher-pupil relationships and the teacher's role in instruction. The importance of understanding individual children to provide better educational opportunities for them has captured the thinking of modern teachers.

The need to know children better and determine reasonable objectives for them has fostered a multitude of tests. Schools use standardized tests, record the results, analyze the data, and apply the findings in guiding children to an extent undreamed of 40 years ago. The measurement of capability, achievement, interest, attitude, preference, and proneness are illustrative of the fields which have been pursued.

Perhaps most of all, tests have helped teachers and principals understand the tremendous complexity and interrelatedness of the many factors which affect children's learning and classroom performance. School administrators have matured beyond the early dream that testing and scientific inquiry would solve the problems of educating young children. This was, of course, an oversimplification and a misinterpretation of the virtues of the scientific movement.

GRADUAL CHANGE

Creating a classroom environment compatible with the premise of individuality has brought the "new look" to elementary schools. Change has been glacial in slowness rather than revolutionary, but change has taken place in all American classrooms and is discernible in varying degrees. Some identifiable practices which widen the 1921 school and the school of 1961 are:

Use of increased amounts and kinds of instructional materials of multilevel difficulty.

Acceptance of the wide spread in achievement found in a class as normal; and provision for this range through grouping, enrichment, and acceleration.

Provision for individual differences through a variety of purposeful activities based on units, problem solving, and research.

Use of multiple approaches or methods to aid children who learn in different ways.

Identification of and provision for groups of children such as the gifted and the retarded.

Use of specialists, resource personnel, and supervisory consultants to meet the needs of exceptional children.

Emphasis on a warm, friendly classroom atmosphere where the teacher, no less of a scholar, has assumed a democratic leadership role in guiding children in planning, searching, testing, and evaluating.

By noting curriculum practices, other demarcations are evident. Early in this 40-year period, science instruction took its place in the elementary school and currently foreign languages have gained a foothold. Subject areas have been unified and correlated to aid and reinforce learning.

Critical thinking and problem solving, particularly in science and social studies, have moved the research techniques into the elementary schools. The so-called "tools of learning" are now used in the immediate quest for knowledge, consistent with the child's development, rather than as tools to be mastered for some possible future use.

Use of the local community, its problems and resources, has brought more reality into the classroom and contributes to community betterment.

Classroom teachers participate to a greater degree in planning curriculum, production of teaching materials, and in evaluating school programs.

Finally, the battle between the Progressives, who sometimes argued that we teach children, and the Essentialists, who held high the banner of content or subject matter, has reached a stalemate.

The wall between these extremists has become the main highway for the "middle-of-the-road" schools of today.

More than 30 million children are attending elementary schools in America in 1961. This phenomenal increase in numbers has taxed the ingenuity of administrators and the pocketbooks of taxpayers to provide classrooms and to organize classes for quality instruction.

The over-all picture in respect to both school organization and classroom procedures has been one of development and improvement. But it must be noted that within individual states, and even within individual school systems, there is considerable variation in practice. Some classrooms have not yet reached the professional level of the best known and tested procedures of 1921! Every practice from the best to the poorest that has been popular in the last century may be found somewhere today.

While it is pleasant to reminisce and review our accomplishments, this is only important as these past events foreshadow the education which must be provided for children. What will the future be in terms of long-range goals for elementary schools? Three basic major problems confront and challenge principals today.

First, citizens must be well informed, but the accumulation of knowledge has become so great that it is possible to master only a fractional part. How can we select curriculum content to turn out educated world citizens?

Second, how can we work to strengthen the home-school partnership in a society and an economy which shakes the foundations of our families? Will the school continue to assume more responsibilities of the home? In the long run, do we strengthen the family or the school by programs of feeding, recreation, and child care?

Third, the individual child must remain the center of all educational endeavor. How can a small child keep his identity and find a warm, friendly school environment in an overpopulated school, or in auditorium classes with mass-media instruction? How can technology be used to aid the individual rather than to threaten or destroy his individuality?

If we could view the future in a crystal ball, the principal's work would be much easier. That is not possible. But we do know that the next 40 years will bring accelerating change far beyond the scope of the years from 1921 to 1961. The past and the present give us our vantage point for the challenge of the persistent future.●

SOME folks entertain a new thought as if it were an unwelcome relative.—*Morris Bender.*

Why Did He Quit Teaching?

WILLIAM BARTRAM
In Ohio Schools

William Bartram is Chairman, Language Arts Department, South High School, Canton, Ohio. Reported from Ohio Schools, *XXXIX (March 1961), 14–15.*

MR. John Smith has quit teaching. By consensus of his colleagues, students, and superiors he was one of the best teachers ever to enter the public education system. Why did he quit? He quit for the same reason I am tempted to quit and for the same reason many teachers with vision, courage, and creativity are tempted to quit.

I used to say that a good teacher never left the profession, that a good teacher was a dedicated one and stayed despite the many problems that confronted him. Now I am afraid that only good teachers leave. This profession is unique because it is the only one in which action cannot be taken to solve the problems that beset it.

We are stuck in a mess of triviality, *caput mortum;* we are plagued by a lack of grit; we are defeated before battle by the prevalent attitude of isolationism; we are blinded by masks of pedagogical clichés. And I think I can substantiate each of these accusations.

When teachers congregate to exchange concepts, a great majority begin to exchange insignificant details about their classroom procedure. "How can we improve English instruction?" a thinker might ask, and the pedagog replies, "I find that putting sentences on the board and having my students read them aloud helps a great deal."

"But I find a more varied and rich experience occurs for my students," another nonthinker counters, "when they write the sentences on the board themselves." And so the whole discussion degenerates to a give and take of selfassertion and justification.

The lack of grit? Just try to get a group of teachers to do something new. Or try to get them to make a protest which might jeopardize their jobs.

What does a teacher at an openhouse say to a parent who asks, "How is my child doing?" Has any teacher anywhere in any school ever been honest and said, "Lousy"? It's even funnier to watch those teachers getting parent's cigarette smoke in their faces when they're dying to smoke themselves. Teachers!

Every committee report and every class group activity belies the fact that teachers are the worst isolationists in the human race. When school starts in the morning, the shutting doors symbolize the minds closing. Teachers will never know what's going on next door and, what's worse, they don't much care. I, as an English teacher, get icy stares when I take my "free" period to visit the shop or gym or Spanish class. The students can't imagine an English teacher having other interests, nor can they imagine any kind of relationship between the various programs of instruction.

Are the administrators to be blamed? I think not! Mr. John Smith was the only teacher I ever heard flatly refuse a work load. Most teachers just let them pile it on, then go home and mumble to their spouses and burn supper.

If I were an administrator with a teacher who would teach all day long if assigned to it, I would make the assignment. There are some teachers who would teach all day inside a barrel at the city dump. Love of teaching? I doubt it. If a teacher really loves teaching, he must admit that he can't teach every period of the day and do a decent job. And if he can't do a decent job, he's cheating everyone.

It is time teachers came to realize that demands made to lessen work load are not engendered of selfindulgence, but stem from a desire to improve performance.

I said that we are blinded by masks of pedagogical clichés. I suppose there is an inadequacy to language. But it is not a language inadequacy when the words hide a thought inadequacy. Lack of leadership is hazed over with "group dynamics." Stupidity lurks behind "socioeconomic background." Making smart kids work harder is cloaked with "providing for individual differences." A questionnaire becomes an "evaluative technique," and teaching from the desk top is dignified with "lecture-discussion."

I haven't begun to cover all the folly of my chosen profession. I get even more disgusted with teachers and teaching when I encounter the selfrighteous academic teacher griping because there is "overemphasis on athletics."

Why can't the classroom be as interesting a place as the practice field? Why do people have the idea that a good English classroom is 38 little desks and one big one while the home-economics department looks like paradise and the coach has an office? Why can you get to know a boy better in 10 minutes on the football field than you can all year in English class? Are the coaches wrong? No. They are right. It is the teachers who are wrong.

Am I writing a condemnation of all teachers and all educational systems? *All* generalizations are unjust. But when a man like Mr. John Smith and many more like him are driven out of a profession that needed them, when the children who were profiting from their wisdom and talents are deprived of those assets, then the system and the people in the system are wrong. •

A Direct Line to Johnny's School

GEORGE M. KAISER

In The PTA Magazine

THE teacher-parent conference is fast becoming an American institution, almost on a par with the hot dog.

At the conference, parent and teacher get acquainted. Information and observations are swapped, with the hope that the result will be a better understanding of what makes a particular child tick. Some school systems have expanded their programs to provide two or three scheduled conferences a year for parents who want them.

In addition to the teacher-parent conference, we find numerous ways of keeping parents informed about what is taking place in school. There are visits to classes, go-to-school nights, special assemblies, P.T.A. meetings, and bulletins and newsletters. There are many lines of communication to the school for the parent willing to take advantage of them.

When all goes well with Johnny, the ordinary schedule of communication seems adequate. But what about the extraordinary situation that seems to demand immediate attention? School officials and parents agree that there are times when communication can't wait, when it is essential that it take place *now*. Why, then, do school officials often complain about being pressured for immediate conferences? Why do some parents speak bitterly of uncooperative principals and teachers who put them off and don't take their problems seriously?

George M. Kaiser is Psychologist for the Glencoe Public Schools, Illinois. Reported from The PTA Magazine, *LV (March 1961), 8–10.*

Let's see if there are some guiding principles that might help parents and teachers to identify major problems, which cannot wait, and minor ones, which can.

In instances where children are harming other children or are endangering themselves, the teacher or principal has to make a judgment. Should parents be informed? Is the offense an isolated instance of childish misbehavior, something that won't happen again if the child is reproved or warned? Or is it something more serious, something parents ought to help with or handle? If it is the latter, the school should inform the parents and enlist their cooperation at once.

Now, another kind of problem. A child is known to be lying consistently to her teachers, another has been cheating on tests and copying other children's work, and yet another is stealing money and belongings from lockers. These are delinquent tendencies, symptoms of emotional disturbance, signals that something serious may be wrong. Although such things are unpleasant to hear about, parents will want to be informed at once so that the youngsters can be helped.

Poor academic work is still another type of problem on which there is uncertainty as to just *when* parents should be called. Many schools, believing in "sooner" rather than "later," use special forms to alert parents to poor scholarship before report cards are due.

Although the learning process is the school's primary business, there are wide differences of opinion among educators regarding when and how to communicate with parents about poor school work between the regularly scheduled conference and report-card periods. In this matter parents have been critical of teachers and have accused schools (sometimes justifiably) of not informing them soon enough.

Now let's reverse the coin and look at the parent's side. Certainly one of the major reasons for parents' calls to the school is Johnny's poor academic work. Every report-card day produces a deluge of calls. It seems that between report-card periods Johnny has been saying, "We don't have any homework tonight. We did it at school." Sometimes parents call the school to find out how much fact or fiction lies behind Johnny's statement. Sometimes they wait for the report. In short, there is a good deal of anxiety, well-grounded or not, about Johnny's progress. The result is an inquiry from home to school.

Another area that stimulates telephone calls from parents is Johnny's social problems. Since educators emphasize the concept of the total child, taking into account his intellectual, physical, social, and emotional qualities and characteristics, isn't it logical for parents to ask the school's help on social problems?

NO SIMPLE ANSWER

The answer is not simple. The school staff *is* interested in all aspects of Johnny's life, but it is far from understanding their complex interrelationships and arriving at a meaningful whole picture. The answer is not simple because the problem is not simple. Take, for example, a youngster who is rejected by all his classmates. If anyone had a facile solution to this problem, it would have been patented long ago. The school doesn't shrug it off. Professionals in several specialist areas struggle year after year with this and similar problems. In the past, struggling might have been considered enough. But since the school (willingly or unwillingly) has taken over many functions formerly belonging to the home, parents have come to expect answers from professionals connected with the schools.

But schools don't have all

the answers. Some professionals, through their own naivete and parental pressure, are seduced into attempting off-the-cuff answers. But it is my impression that school professionals are gradually feeling less guilty about gaps in their knowledge and their insight into human behavior. Educators could well afford to be freer with their "I don't know" answers. Parents will learn to accept this response in the same spirit as they do when it comes from the family doctor. Actually it can be a refreshing starting point from which parents and teacher or counselor can work together on a specific problem, academic or social.

Now suppose there is an emergency that warrants a telephone call from parent to teacher. Should the parent call the teacher at home? In some places this is the regular procedure. Teachers sometimes invite parents to telephone during evening hours. Under these circumstances there can be no quarrel with parents who phone at night.

But many teachers prefer to make and take their telephone calls during the day. Parents should be informed of this preference, and if they are tempted to call in the evening, they should evaluate carefully the necessity for doing so. True emergencies are rare, and most problems will keep overnight without disastrous results.

Just as it isn't always Teacher at one end of the line, so it isn't always Mother at the other end. Father surely has a role in home-school communications, but what should it be? Teachers who bring fathers into the conferences—usually in the evenings or on Saturdays—report, almost without exception, more satisfactory results than when they confer with mothers alone. Yet usually Mother does come alone. She takes from the conference what seems to her important information and relays bits of it to Father, often at times when he is not in the mood to hear what Johnny's teacher had to say. We are overdue for a reevaluation of Father's role in the educative process. In this reevaluation fathers should surely be asked to participate.

While there are many techniques for increasing the *quantity* of home-school communication, it is the *quality* of our communication that needs investigation and improvement. How significant, we might ask, are conferences if fathers are rarely involved? What is so sacred about providing equal time for each teacher-parent conference? Isn't it true that some problems require more time to discuss than others?

It is for parents, teachers, and administrators in each school to decide whether these and other questions relating to home-school communication warrant the time and energy invested in finding solutions. What is needed is not necessarily more communication but more meaningful communication. •

Let's Give the Teacher's Child a Break

Kenneth M. Frisbie

In

The Elementary School Journal

THIRTY years ago few teachers had children of their own in the public schools. When women teachers married, they were fired. And 30 years ago public schools had few men teachers.

Today the situation is reversed. Young women preparing to teach also expect to marry and the number of men entering the public schools as teachers is increasing rapidly. One result of this development is that there are more and more children with teaching parents attending our public schools. It is quite clear that the special problems of the teacher's child and the teacher who has children in public schools are significant factors in the personal relations of the school community.

Though the situation has changed a great deal in the past 30 years, the special problems that beset the teacher's child and the teacher-parent are not new. These problems have been with us since public schools first opened their doors.

Let's begin with the child's side of the problem. He is subject to stress in three areas: relations with his peers, relations with his teachers and the administrative staff, and relations with his teacher-parent.

In the peer group, the teacher's child has needs common to all children. He needs acceptance by peers; he needs friendships; and he needs to share common emotions, aspirations, and behavior patterns. He needs to feel and express loyalty to his group.

All these needs are hard to satisfy for the teacher's child. Acceptance is particularly hard to win. His peers may not trust him, presuming that because his parents are teachers he has an alliance with, and an allegiance to, the standards and mores of the adult world. This presumption is strengthened by the fact that usually he does reflect family tastes and values that are somewhat different from those of his playmates. These become clear-cut signals that label him "teacher's kid."

Differences show up in vocabulary, in reading tastes, topics of casual conversation, and choices in leisure-time activities. All these

Kenneth M. Frisbie is Superintendent of Freehold Regional High School, New Jersey. Reported from The Elementary School Journal, *LXI (January 1961), 206–10.*

signs of being different are clearly identified with his parentage, and they obstruct peer acceptance.

The frustrations in the situation set up a condition of emotional stress. Just as all normal people react to emotional stress by taking action to alter the situation and relieve the stress, so does the teacher's child. He may alter his natural vocabulary and adopt the vernacular of the playground. To be thoroughly convincing he may ape the extremist—even to using profanity. Often he adopts the behavior of an antisocial group. Or occasionally he becomes a crusader against real or fancied administrative justice. He will do almost anything to identify himself with the peer group.

These are cleansing mechanisms by which the child tries to remove the stigmas. But all too often the child's efforts to establish himself as one of the group are not successful. Often, in spite of all the child does, the frustration and the stress remain.

Unfortunately, the actions we have cited do get results of another sort. Teachers and administrators tend to react in a hypersensitive and hypercritical manner to the teacher's child. When he attempts to relieve the emotional stress in his peer relations, we react critically, reminding him and his fellow students of his parentage.

A teacher-friend of mine once found his freshman son assigned to his class. Son Bill spent one other period with the same group of students with another teacher who crusaded against feet on other people's chairs. One day she caught Bill red footed. "William!" she exclaimed, "what would your father say if he should see you like that?"

The immediate answer was, "My old man wouldn't say anything. He puts his feet in the bottom drawer."

Bill salvaged his status with his peer group, but he didn't make the rest of the year any easier in that class.

FROM ALL SIDES

When teachers single out the teacher's child and label him in the presence of his peers, they are contributing to his emotional problem. They are highlighting the fact that he is different and are saying, in effect, that he should behave differently because he is a teacher's child.

If he conforms, he faces further rejection and persecution from his peer groups. If he fails to conform, he is in trouble with authority. By lack of understanding, teachers intensify the child's emotional conflict, condemning him to disgrace among his peers or goading him into unacceptable behavior.

Though relationships with teachers and administrators are difficult and confusing, the teacher's child must also reckon with his teacher-parent. This can be the source of some very trying situations. His parents, like other teachers, may remind him of his parentage, doing their best to set him apart, to make him different.

The teacher-parent places another unique and devastating responsibility on his child. Can a teacher's child be a slow reader? Should a principal's son ever be on the ineligible list? Can a teacher's child play hookey? Get into a fight in the locker room? What will the board of education think? Your father's job is in danger! Your mother's professional reputation will suffer!

The teacher's child knows he shouldn't do these things. But what is he to do if he feels compelled? What if emotional conflicts push him into error? Should he not be understood, helped, and a part of his burden lifted? Shouldn't we approach his problem with the understanding and counsel we offer other children? All too often, the teacher-parent, pushed by his own emotional disturbances, his fears, and his professional pride, heaps his burden onto the conscience of his child.

There are other ways in which we teacher-parents throw stumbling blocks in the paths of our children. We are so aware of all that can go wrong that we hover too closely over them. We anticipate everything they are going to do and we give them too much "help" at home. The parental question, "How did school go today?" is too often followed with a detailed grilling. In short, we make a "production" of our protection.

We are also likely to disrupt the normal progress of our children by expecting too much of them. They must make good marks, they must accept and exploit positions of leadership, they must be docile under the hand of authority—all to live up to the expected pattern of the teacher's child.

Another factor that tends to intensify the whole situation for the child and for the teacher-parent is that the parent thinks of himself as a teacher and a parent. To the child, the parent is never a divided personality; he is just Father or Mother.

As our children go through school, they need guidance and help as all children do. We know the mistakes they are making and why they are making them. We advise them in the same way that we advise thousands of other boys and girls. Why don't they listen to us?

At last we wake up! Do children ever listen to Dad when they are 14? Of course not! We cannot practice our professional skills on our children any more than doctors can successfully care for their own families in times of critical illness.

So at long last we go to school. We talk to guidance people and to teachers. Belatedly our children find the counsel and help they need from our professional associates. By bitter experience and no little suffering we learn a most wonderful thing. To our own children we are not school teachers. We are their dads and mothers. •

Review of Literature on the Slow Learner

DONALD G. FERGUSON

In Education

THE slow learner, comprising 15 to 20 percent of the school population, presents very perplexing problems to the educator. Despite his presence in such large numbers, few teachers or administrators are contented with what the school is doing for him, and many are bothered by what he is doing to the school. To date, however, there is little evidence in the literature that the slow learner has been given serious constructive attention.

What problems does the literature on the subject treat and what does it say about them? These questions guided this review of professional journals, bulletins, and texts dealing with the education of slow-learning children.

Generally, professional organizations have not addressed themselves to the problems of educating the slow learner. In sum, those who do write on the subject are in agreement on the following points:

Slow-learning children are educable and are entitled to attention by the public schools. Slow-learning children are most clearly defined and identified on the basis of reduced learning ability. They lie on the intelligence continuum between the child of average ability and the child referred to as mentally retarded. Realistic programs can be offered for these children in the regular class, but attention must be given to specific objectives, methods, and materials of instruction.

Three major problem areas are evident in the literature. Two deal essentially with administrative or programing issues, and a third relates to matters of instruction.

Typical problems confronting administrators relating to educational programing for the slow learner are: where and how they are located, and what kinds of programs they need.

In practice and in the literature there is confusion about who is a slow learner. Generally, terminology is nonstandardized and troublesome to any other than the most astute reader. Yet there is agreement that classification and identification are essential to programing.

The answer to resolving the confusion seems to lie in restricting

Donald G. Ferguson is Associate Professor of Special Education, Kent State University, Ohio. Reported from Education, *LXXXI (February 1961), 326–30.*

use of the term "slow learner" to children with limited learning potential in terms of school ability or IQ test scores and, further, to fix the range of IQ from about 75-90. At the lower end of the scale this would distinguish the slow learner from the mentally retarded whose IQ limits are fairly well established.

This restriction does not eliminate confusion at the upper end of the scale. In some instances the brighter, nonachieving pupil will test in the slow-learner range and often will perform academically like the slow learner.

In any case, additional testing and specialized help will be needed for optimum programing, for as a group they often have additional complicating sensory, physical, and psycho-social problems which must be considered in planning an effective program.

Through carefully planned and continuous testing programs, the slow-learning child can be identified as he enters school. This identification will aid the teachers who must know him to teach him and also aid the administrators who are concerned with long-range planning.

Most articles and studies explicitly make it clear that slow-learning children *can* learn and are the responsibility of the public schools. They can profit from an educational program geared to their abilities, and they have a right to expect one.

However, they do require special programing in that they cannot as a rule perform satisfactorily in the more difficult academic subjects; nor are these entirely satisfactory for them. A proper program will move more slowly, will delay each new step until the child's readiness is assured, will allow for the slow learner to get progressively farther behind the average and bright, and will allow for him to reach his peak of mental growth at an earlier point in the program.

SAME GENERAL GOALS

The general educational objectives need not be different for slow-learning children. The objectives of selfrealization, human relationship, civic responsibility, and economic efficiency are appropriate. However, for the slow learner to accomplish the general objectives, specific objectives should have an immediate relationship to his environment and life needs. They should be related to topics such as orientation to the school, living in the home, making and holding friends, boy-girl relationships, living in the community, personal and community health, and getting and holding a job.

The literature gives some attention to administrative questions of grouping, grading, and promotion. Generally, most authorities appeal for flexibility. Major consideration should be given to the aims to be accomplished and not to administrative expediency.

The policies adopted for organizing classes and regulating progress should achieve several purposes. They should establish and maintain reasonably permanent instructional groups. They should provide for orderly progress and should bring the pupils to termination of their elementary education at not later than 13 or 14 years of age. They should provide for a smooth transition from the elementary-school to the secondary-school program.

There is no hard and fast recommendation concerning grouping. The authorities do agree that slow learners can be taught effectively in mixed classes, provided that the school is willing and able to make the adjustment.

There is usually criticism from professional and lay people when separate grouping is attempted. This criticism is based on the contention that separate grouping violates the principles of democracy. W. B. Featherstone answers that criticism: "Equal opportunity does not mean identical opportunity or that everyone should do the same thing." Perhaps our democratic ideals are best served if children are grouped to allow each pupil to have a program in line with his level and rate of progress. If grouping is desired, care must be taken to avoid the "dumping-ground" concept.

INSTRUCTION METHODS

There are many articles which treat various aspects of teaching slow-learning children. A review and analysis of the available materials reveal several points on which authors agree.

Slow-learning children generally learn through the same methods as brighter children. Thus, teaching methods will be essentially the same as those used with brighter children except that there should be a different emphasis. This point is similar to that made concerning objectives.

Activities must be carefully organized to insure continuity. They must also be offered in a way which will insure a reasonable degree of success and accomplishment for the slow-learning child.

Instructional goals should be clearly stated and meaningful. This is particularly important since slow-learning children are likely to be confused by abstractions and since they are most effectively motivated by concrete and relatively immediate goals.

Frequent evaluation of progress and frequent teacher-pupil conferences are highly desirable.

Techniques of instruction should include liberal amounts of demonstration, practice, and drill.

And materials should be selected on the basis of their appropriateness to the pupil's ability, readiness, and interests. The problem of finding materials that are not offensive to the child because of his more advanced physical and social age must be faced, even if it means preparing special materials for use with individuals and certain groups. •

What Do You Know about Today's Schools?

Facts and Figures

In NEA Research Bulletin

EVERYONE in education—teachers and administrators alike—should have at their fingertips important national facts and figures on the educational enterprise to which they devote their lives. No one can remember all the facts, of course, but many of the items selected for this listing probably should be included on the "must" list. Both the accomplishments and the shortcomings of public education today are shown.

The Pupils:

1. Total public-school enrolment was 15,503,000 in 1900; 25,678,000 in 1930; and 37,244,284 in 1960-61.

2. Public-school elementary enrolment is now estimated at 25,265,620, or 68 percent of the total; and secondary enrolment, at 11,978,664, or 32 percent of the total.

3. In 1900, 71.9 percent of the population 5 to 17 years of age was enrolled in public schools; in 1930, 81.7 percent; and in 1960-61, 82.7 percent.

4. The school-age population (5 to 17 years of age) increased 47 percent during the 10 years from 1950 to 1960, an increase two and one-half times the increase in the total population. In 1950, one person in five was of school age; in 1960, one person in four.

5. Of 1,000 pupils in the fifth grade in 1950-51, 885 entered high school in the fall of 1954, 584 were graduated from high school in the spring of 1958, and 308 entered college in the fall of 1958.

6. In urban elementary schools 380,000 children were in classes of more than 40 pupils each in 1959-60.

7. Nearly 400,000 children attended one-teacher schools in 1958-59.

8. The first "school attendance" law was enacted in 1852 in Massachusetts. Today, 47 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have school attendance laws. Mississippi and South Carolina recently repealed their laws, and Virginia made its law dependent on local option. Thirty-six states and the District of Columbia set the *minimum* age for compulsory "school attendance" at seven years; six states, at age six; and five states, at age eight. The *maximum* age for compulsory "school attendance" is 16 years in 37 states and the District of Columbia; at 17 years in five states; at 18 years in four states; and at 15 years in one state.

9. More than 13.5 million chil-

Reported from NEA Research Bulletin, *XXXIX (February 1961), 26–31.*

dren in 62,000 public and nonprofit private schools are participating in the National School Lunch Program. This past year $540 million was spent locally; $58 million was spent for food purchased by the U.S. Department of Agriculture; and $70 million worth of surplus food was used.

10. In 1957-59, a total of 11,343,132 pupils were transported to school at public expense, which totaled $419,539,863 (exclusive of purchase of new buses or other capital outlay).

Schools and Schools Systems:

1. In 1960-61, the number of school districts reached an all-time low of 37,153. Ten years ago there were 83,614; 20 years ago, 116,999. At present Nebraska has 3,250, the largest number in any state.

2. In 1959-60, slightly more than half the school districts enrolled fewer than 50 pupils each.

3. At the beginning of the school year 1959-60 there were 1,285,552 instruction rooms in the nation's public schools, 62,700 were scheduled for completion, and 132,400 additional ones were needed.

4. As of February 1960, in 17 Southern states and the District of Columbia, there were 6,973 school districts, of which 748 had been desegregated. These desegregated schools serviced 3,044,070 pupils of a total public-school population in this region of 12,940,443.

5. About 6 percent of the urban school districts operating elementary schools have an ungraded sequence; 25 percent are considering the adoption of such a plan (as of 1958-59). The most common practice where the ungraded sequence is used is through grade 3.

The Teachers:

1. In 1960-61, instructional staff members total 1,526,078. This number comprises 1,408,963 classroom teachers, 84,546 principals and supervisors, and 32,571 other instructional personnel.

2. There are 857,353 elementary-school teachers (125,477 men; 731,876 women). There are 561,609 secondary-school teachers (285,632 men; 265,979 women).

3. There are 93,917 teachers with emergency or temporary certificates employed in the public schools. Fifty-two percent are employed in rural schools and 52 percent have less than four years of college preparation.

4. As of September 1960, 110,000 teachers were needed to replace those leaving the profession the year before; 30,000 to serve increased enrolments; 30,000 to relieve overcrowding and half-day sessions; 20,000 to give instruction and services not now provided; and 40,000 to replace the unprepared—total, 230,000.

5. A 12-month year of employment for teachers was reported by about 5.2 percent of the urban school districts in 1958-59. This plan was about four times as common as 10 years before.

6. The average salary of the instructional staff in 1960-61 was

$5,389, with a purchasing power of $4,250 in 1947-49 dollars. It was estimated that in 1960-61, 10 percent of the public-school classroom teachers would be paid less than $3,500; 27 percent, from $3,500 to $4,499; 30 percent from $4,500 to $5,499; 18 percent, from $5,500 to $6,499; and 15 percent, $6,500 or more.

7. Sixteen percent of the urban school districts impose limitations on the employment of teachers outside school. Most commonly the requirement is that outside employment not interfere with teaching duties.

8. In 14 percent of the urban school districts having elementary grades, teachers are required to be on duty during the lunch period. Seventy-two percent require teachers to be on duty on a rotating basis, and 12 percent give teachers a duty-free lunch period.

Instructional Services:

1. In 1900, the average school term was 144 days; today it is 178.

2. In 1958-59 there were 15,850 (full-time equivalent) persons engaged in counseling and guidance in public secondary schools. A survey of 432 public high schools found that about a third had no guidance program, and many others only a limited program.

3. In 1959, 3.7 million students were enrolled in vocational educational courses. Of this number, 42 percent were in home economics, 21 percent in agriculture, 26 percent in trade and industry, and 8 percent in marketing. State and local funds provided 82 percent of the expenditures.

4. More than 1.9 million high-school students (24 percent of the enrolment in grades 9-12) were enrolled in foreign-language courses in 1958.

5. Twelve percent of the urban school systems are teaching one or more foreign languages in the elementary grades (1958-59).

6. In 1958-59, speech therapists were employed, at least to a limited extent, in 64 percent of the urban school districts. More than 60 percent of the urban districts make some provisions for remedial reading instruction.

7. In 1958-59, 60 percent of the urban school districts provided enrichment of instruction in regular classes for bright pupils.

8. It is estimated that 25,004 high schools (96 percent) and 31,328 elementary schools (30 percent) have libraries. About 20,000 professionally trained librarians serve school libraries (5,000 in elementary schools). There are about 15,000 untrained people serving as librarians.

9. There are about 177 million volumes in public-school libraries. Current expenditures for materials are estimated at $2 per pupil. Total 1959-60 expenditures for library materials were estimated at $35 million.

10. About 28 percent of the urban school districts make at least some provision for the programed use of television instruction.

11. Driver education is fully

provided to pupils in 72 percent of the urban school districts; limited provisions are made in 17 percent (1958-59).

12. For reporting pupil progress to parents of pupils in elementary grades, 77 percent of the urban school districts use a combination of report cards and parent conferences; 22 percent, report cards only; and about 1 percent, parent conferences only.

Educational Attainment:

1. In 1959, the median years of school completed by adults 25 years of age and older was 11.0; in 1950, it was 9.3; in 1940, 8.4.

2. In 1959, only 2.2 percent of the population was illiterate; in 1930, 4.3 percent; in 1900, 10.7.

3. In 1959, 24.7 percent of the Selective Service registrants failed the mental test; the range among the states was from 5.6 percent to 61.9 percent.

Revenues and Expenditures:

1. It is estimated that nearly 4 percent of the revenue receipts of public schools comes from the federal government; about 40 percent from the state governments; and about 56 percent from the local governments. Thirty years ago, less than 1 percent came from the federal government; about 20 percent from the state governments; and about 80 percent from the local governments.

2. Total school expenditures of $16.5 billion in 1960-61 are expected to exceed revenue receipts by $1.7 billion. The deficit will be met largely by long-term debt.

3. Expenditures for public schools, excluding capital outlay and interest, total $12.9 billion, or $390 per pupil in daily attendance. In 1930, current expenditures totaled $1.8 billion, or $86.70 per pupil.

4. School costs are expected to increase on the average at least $1 billion a year during the next decade. In the next 10 years we will spend more on public schools than was spent for that purpose in the past 100 years.

5. State and local government expenditures for all public education amounted to some $17.3 billion or 29.5 percent of the total expenditures by these governments.

6. Per-capita expenditures of state and local governments for local elementary and secondary schools was $79.58; for all public education, $99.75 (1959).

7. Expenditures for public schools in 1958 amounted to 3.7 percent of total personal income. •

A Fact that Figures

It is ironical that Abraham Ribicoff, our new Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, voted against the creation of that agency when President Truman proposed it in 1950. He was a member of the House from Connecticut.—From *Mississippi Educational Advance*.

Can We Reform Our Illogical System?

Forward to Phonetics!

Helen Bowyer

In Phi Delta Kappan

WHY make a problem out of reading? At least so far as word recognition goes. Why not undercut the whole time-waste of "isle, style, mile, guile"; the memory burden of "meter, liter, heater, teeter"; the reason-flouting of "since, rinse, sense, scent, cent, sent"? It could be done with a system of sound-sign relationships at least as teachable as that through which Russia expedites the education of her young.

One such system is World English, which America's Simpler Spelling Association and its British ally have long been offering. A modified demonstration example is as follows:

Pronounce *ae, ee, ie, oe, oo* as in *maelstrom, fee, fie, foe, fool—aa* and *au* as in *bazaar* and *bauble—uu* and *ou* as in *put* and *pout—*italicized *th* as in *thin* and *both—zh* as in *pleasure* or *Persian*. Give all other letters and digraphs their most common present values, but notice that short *i* supplants *y* in such words as *perfectly* and that *t* and *z* supplant *d* and *s* wherever they more truly represent the sound.

"Yoo aar oeld, Faathur Wilym," the yung man sed,
"And yoor haer haz bekum veri hwiet,
And yet yoo insesntli stand on yoor hed,
Doo yoo *th*ink at yoor aej it iz riet?"
"In mie yoo*th*," Faathur Wilym replied too hiz sun,
"Ie feerd it miet injur the braen,
But now that Ei'm purfekli shoor Ei hav nun,
Hwie Ei do it agen and agen."

"Buuli for him," chortld oeld Paul Hoil, kiking wun Purzhn slipur tordz the seeling, the uther *th*roo the dor.

Here in 83 words we have 40 basic spelling units matched one-to-one with the 40 basic sounds of our American speech. Together they constitute an alphabet as consistent and predictable as that through which the Soviet Union manages to have its children *reading* by Christmas of their first school year. That it holds a similar promise for us is demonstrated daily through those missionary fields of Asia and Africa where the

Helen Bowyer is a retired teacher and social service worker. Reported from Phi Delta Kappan, *XLII (February 1961), 207–10.*

Committee for World Literacy uses approximately this system in the beginning teaching of English.

World English is not the only system actively engaged in providing one character and *one only* for each separate sound of our mother tongue. We have only to open our desk dictionary to find another. Says the Funk & Wagnalls unabridged, "That we should be compelled to respell words to show how they are pronounced is a pity and an absurdity, since the original and proper function of spelling is to do that very thing. The maker of a German, or Italian, or Spanish dictionary has rarely any need to respell a word to tell his countrymen how the word is pronounced. But in English the necessity exists and must continue to exist as long as our so-called orthography continues on its present footing. Hence arises the problem of a scientific alphabet."

AN ENDURING PROBLEM

Way back in 1903, the National Education Association was acutely conscious of this problem. With other groups it organized a committee which eventually produced the alphabet which, with some modifications, still appears in the Funk & Wagnalls unabridged dictionary as Key I to its respellings. Any hope the NEA may then have entertained that this alphabet would come into general use was doomed from the start by the diacritics used to indicate the value of its vowels. These diacritics still cripple today's dictionaries, even those compiled for the fourth and fifth grader.

When a nine-year-old turns to his Thorndike for the pronunciation of *falcon, urge, ruthless,* why should he be faced with the strangeness of *fôkən, ėrj, rüthlis,* when the familiar *faukn, urj, roothles* not only portray their sounds as well, but give him a sense of at-homeness in his dictionary which would lead to a more frequent and pleasurable use thereof?

A POSSIBLE SOLUTION

Perhaps the greatest single service the NEA could now render in the reading area would be to authorize a series of school dictionaries making this simple change. It would be almost the only change needed to bring most dictionaries to an all-Roman letter key of maximum simplicity and trustworthiness. Their consonants are already close to that ideal. Like World English, they discard *c, q, x,* turning their redundant functions over to the perfectly able letters herewith indicated: *s*istern, *k*up, brus*k*, *kw*it, a*ks*is, eg*z*it. And all join World English in eschewing the double consonant, as such, and dropping all silent letters which falsify pronunciation in such words as lim*b*, e*d*ge, sign, *m*nemonic, *p*seudo, etc. Moreover, all confine *y* to its consonantal function as in *yet* and *banyan* and respell *lyric, ugly, pity,* as *lirik, ugli, piti.*

In short, with little more than a Romanizing of their parenthetic vowels, our dictionaries could not only facilitate a greater and more pleasurable resort to their pages but could provide young America with preparation for that inevitable day when our spelling will no longer be "a pity and an absurdity"—when, as in that Latin world just across a bridge from Brownsville or El Paso, the entry will take care of its own pronunciation and mere application of one's first-grade alphabet will ensure correct spelling of every native word one writes, from *aardvark* to *Zyzzogeton*. Then, in consequence, our Johnny will finish his eleventh grade neck and neck with Juanito in every subject which demands effortless command of the mechanics of reading.

Rudolph Flesch once described the methods of Dr. Frank Laubach of the missionary Committee for World Literacy as follows: "He always starts by working out a phonetic alphabet for the language he is dealing with and then teaches the natives in very short order to read and write it. Yes, if you have a language with a perfectly phonetic alphabet, you are in a sort of dream world where teaching to read and write is no problem at all. This is (all but) true, for instance in Spanish, Finnish, Czech . . . But let's get back from this dream world to the harsh reality of English."

Why should there be a harsh reality to get back to? Who or what imposes it on us? What is there in our Bible or our Constitution which obligates us to retard our children's education with 250 chameleon spellings for their 40 speech sounds? And whence came the good sense of these exemplary Spanish simplifications. Some may be surprised to learn that it came from just such scholarly initiative as our English spelling cries for today.

LANGUAGE SAFEGUARDS

In 1717 Spain's now lovely *Castellano* had sunk to a literary low which dismayed the proud and patriotic Marques de Villena. Not being a man to endure what he could cure, the Marques persuaded Phillip V to found a Royal Academy "to watch over the purity and proper use of the Castilian tongue."

The watch has been maintained to this hour—and over nothing more vigilantly than the consonance of Spanish sounds and symbols. And not only in peninsular Spain. The Hispanic world was a conglomerate of colonies of differing geography and differing Indian backgrounds and admixtures, largely isolated from each other and the outside world.

Surely these were conditions conducive to spelling chaos as serious as ours. But the *Dictionario* of the Royal Academy became the orthographic bible of what literate population the colonies had, and it remained the highest authority of the independent nations into which they evolved.

The need is evident and great for a comparable institution to serve the English tongue. •

★ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

New Education Commissioner.—On April 4, Sterling M. McMurrin was sworn in as the new head of the U.S. Office of Education. Immediately afterward he held his first news conference, which included a statement of his convictions. These include:

- American education must be consistent with the American democratic ideal. "We should [also] take note of the dedication to educational quality that is not uncommon in Europe, and the large commitment of economic wealth to education that is being made in the Soviet Union. Our present waste of human resources must give way . . .
- "I believe that desegregation must move forward in accordance with the law of the land . . .
- "I do not believe that the problem of financing education should be encumbered by social and legal issues that do not bear directly on education itself."
- Quality in education is not as good as it should be. "We must have greater rigor at all levels . . ."
- "We pay our teachers far less than we should . . . A general high quality of teaching in our schools will be achieved only when our society is willing to pay for it . . .
- "Increased emphasis on vocational education is an urgent national need . . .
- "We need more counseling and we need better counselors . . . We need better testing . . .
- "I regard education as a continuing process that extends beyond the schools. It should engage the active interest of every citizen and the resources of our libraries and television channels . . ."
- Finally, education is the road to abundance and material wealth, but education also is the road to cultural enrichment. "Most important, education is the road to genuine freedom . . ."

Dr. McMurrin, during the question period, made a favorable reference to the views of Admiral Hyman Rickover. This was played up in some of the reports to the point that the balance of the new Commissioner's remarks were obscured. As a teacher of philosophy, without public-school teaching experience, there were expectations that he would favor a "tough" line, emphasizing intellectual skills and courses for the gifted, at the expense of efforts in other areas.

His prepared statement gave no evidence of this, but the oral reference to the controversial Admiral provided an opening wedge.

Almost overlooked was Dr. McMurrin's emphasis on "a clear definition of the mission and organization of the Office of Education, employing the report of a committee that was established by my immediate predecessor, Dr. Lawrence G. Derthick."

Private School Hassle.—The Constitution of the U.S. was the object of different interpretations on the question of federal loans to private and parochial schools. Spokesmen for Roman Catholic and small Jewish Orthodox groups held that such loans were constitutional and desirable.

A lengthy brief submitted by Abraham Ribicoff, Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, carefully pointed out that "the field of higher education . . . presents different factual, historical, and constitutional considerations." It then said that at the elementary and secondary level, "across-the-board grants to church schools may not be made" under the First Amendment. Loans are equally invalid. "Tuition payments for all church-school pupils are invalid since they accomplish by indirection what grants do directly."

The legal memorandum, prepared in cooperation with the Department of Justice, also points to areas of uncertain constitutionality, citing the Everson case in which bus transportation for parochial-school pupils was held to be legal, since the benefit is to the child and not to the school itself. On the other hand, the Everson decision said that the statute in question "approaches the verge" of impermissible action under the First Amendment.

The memorandum concluded, "Typically secular and sectarian education is so interwoven in church schools as to thwart most possibilities [of aid]."

Education as an Investment.—As the years go by, there is increasing sophistication in attempts to get fundamental answers to certain questions. Historically, there has been a belief that education is an investment, although supporting data were often lacking. This has been a belief rather than firm knowledge.

As educational costs have increased with the expansion of attendance, school holding power, and diversification of subject offerings, there has been more pressure to measure the benefits of education. A step in this direction was undertaken by the Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. when it published, in 1945, *Education—an Investment in People*. It concluded that "education is an essential instrument through which commerce, industry, and agriculture can be expanded in rising degree." Further, "that the cost of adequate education is an investment that local citizens and business can well afford in increased measure . . ."

The Chamber, in 1954, updated this publication with new tables and figures, including the statement that, "There is a direct relationship between education level and earning power, and, therefore, buying power in our total American economy."

More recently, the U.S. Bureau of the Census published data on the relationship between education and income. These findings show that income goes up with every additional year of schooling. For example, the average male American with an incomplete elementary education earned less than $2,000 in 1958. Some high-school education boosted his income almost to the 1958 median for all employed males above age 14, which was $3,742. Graduates of high schools averaged near $4,500, while college graduates amass an annual total of $6,374.

Corresponding figures for women are appreciably lower, although they, too, show sharp increases with increased education, especially for employed college graduates. Cumulatively, the lifetime difference in earnings is far greater than the loss of earning power during the years of late adolescence or early adulthood when the hours normally devoted to work are given over to studies.

It is the loss of income during these school years which has attracted the attention of Theodore W. Schultz of the University of Chicago, who has been investigating "Education and Economic Growth." His latest report is part of the 1961 yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

He finds the connection between the two to be "exceedingly complex" because "it is far from easy to identify those fruits of education that consist of improvements in the capabilities of a people that are useful in economic endeavor. It takes years as a rule to develop those capabilities and then it requires more years for these capabilities to prove their worth in production."

Dr. Schultz makes clear that he has merely made a preliminary inquiry. Nevertheless he concludes that there is an apparent underinvestment in education.

His chapter refers to the work by Gary S. Becker at the National Bureau of Economic Research. There, a preliminary study pointed to an outline of a general theory of investments in human beings.

Last month, the Carnegie Corporation of New York announced that it is making a further grant of $75,000 so that Dr. Becker can explore this theory in greater detail. He will attempt to determine how much money has been spent on education, and what rate of return this investment has yielded.

His findings are expected to be important for individual students who have to choose a field of study or occupation; there also should be important implications for new nations which face the problem of investing their limited funds.

Double Sessions.—"Not much research has been done on the effect of double sessions, probably because of a general belief that the situation is temporary and that its deficiencies are obvious." That's the finding of a new NEA research memorandum which then summarizes four studies at the elementary level and one high-school study.

The small number of investigations and the partly contradictory results "prevent drawing a definite conclusion . . . These studies do indicate, however, that double sessions may retard the pupil even in the learning of the fundamentals . . ."

In addition, there are disadvantages for administrators, teachers, and parents. Above all, there is practically no available research from which to draw valid conclusions.

Liberal Adult Education. — A grant of $225,000 has been awarded to the National Association of Public School Adult Educators to be used to improve and enlarge offerings in liberal subjects.

Granting foundation is the Fund for Adult Education (Ford) which has been disbursing money to NAPSAE since 1953.

The latest installment — total grants now come to $663,000—will continue a greater effort to provide information, guidance, pilot studies, and in-service training. Some 21 communities will be chosen to receive funds so that they can hire half-time directors of adult education where now they have none. Hope is that after a year the superintendents of these 21 school districts will later expand these to full-time jobs with local funds.

Focus of the program is growth stimulation of adult citizenship—active participation in community affairs based on responsible decisions.

Educational Television.—In two cities, New York and Los Angeles, there are seven commercial television channels in operation, with no allocation for an education channel in the VHF band, the band in general use today.

The Federal Communications Commission has now proposed that in each of these cities one of the commercial licenses be transferred to an educational telecasting organization. Negotiations may take some time, especially because one of the New York channels currently is up for sale, with competing offers being made. Commercial interests, not surprisingly, are offering more than the substantial sum scraped together by the ETV people.

Meanwhile, the Senate has approved a new bill to make $1 million available in each of the 50 states for the construction of ETV facilities. On two earlier occasions the Senate had passed a similar bill which failed of passage in the House.

In addition to prohibiting federal control over programing or content, the bill requires successful applicants for the construction grants to demonstrate the availability of operating funds for the proposed stations.

Ellis Island.—Ambitious plans to build a university on federally owned Ellis Island, in New York Harbor, have fallen through.

The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has rejected all bids as not meeting the necessary requirements. •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

East Orange, N.J.: **Robert H. Seitzer,** formerly acting superintendent, is now superintendent.

Elizabeth, N.J.: **John E. Dwyer,** formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded **J. Harry Adams,** now assistant commissioner, New Jersey State Department of Education.

Jersey City, N.J.: **Robert A. Coyle,** formerly principal of James J. Ferris High School, has been named superintendent.

Sacramento, Calif.: **William J. Burkhard** has announced his retirement.

Massillon, Ohio: **L. J. Smith** will retire on July 1.

Portland, Ore.: **Melvin W. Barnes,** superintendent at Oklahoma City, Okla., has been named successor to **J. W. Edwards,** retiring.

Oklahoma City, Okla.: **Jack F. Parker,** assistant superintendent, has been appointed to succeed Melvin W. Barnes.

Fort Wayne, Ind.: **Lester L. Grile,** assistant superintendent, will succeed **A. T. Lindley,** who has resigned, effective Aug. 1, to become associate professor of education at Purdue University.

Anderson, S.C.: **J. B. Hodges,** Greenville County, S.C., School District, will become superintendent in July.

Cleveland Heights, Ohio: **Theos I. Anderson,** superintendent at Teaneck, N.J., has been appointed superintendent.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Troy State College, Ala.: **Frank R. Stewart,** formerly Alabama state superintendent of education, has been appointed to succeed **C. B. Smith,** who retires June 30.

North Dakota Agricultural College, Fargo: **Frederic S. Hultz** has resigned because of illness.

City College, New York, N.Y.: **Buell G. Gallagher** has resigned to become first chancellor of California's State College System in July.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

University of Bridgeport, Conn.: **R. Daniel Chubbuck,** superintendent at Darien, has been appointed Dana Professor of Education, effective next year.

Queens College, Charlotte, N.C.: **John Otts,** assistant superintendent, Charlotte and Mecklenburg County, has been named professor of education.

Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo: **Harold W. Boles,** formerly educational consultant for an architectural firm in Newark, Ohio, is now professor of education.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Don Davies, director of student teaching, College of Education, University of Minnesota, has been appointed executive secretary of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, effective Aug. 20. He succeeds **T. M. Stinnett,** now assistant executive secretary of the NEA.

John P. Milligan, New Jersey State Department of Education, has resigned to represent the U.S. as chief education adviser to the government of Ecuador.

Herman Allen, formerly education editor of *Newsweek*, has been appointed manager for the Centennial Convocation sponsored by the American Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities. The event is scheduled for Nov. 12-16, 1962, at Kansas City, Mo.

John W. Harold, superintendent at Cedar Falls, Ia., will become executive secretary of the Iowa State Education Association in July.

Marion Cranmore, principal of

Burns Park School, Ann Arbor, Mich., has been named president-elect of the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA.

James W. Kanthak of Redwood City, Calif., and **Thelma Overbeck** of Evansville, Ind., are the first winners of the new Hilda Maehling Fellowships, recently established by the Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA.

J. Fred Murphy, principal of Broad Ripple High School, Indianapolis, Ind., has been elected president of the North Central Association.

Frank Miles, superintendent at Limon, Colo., has been appointed executive director of the Colorado Association of School Boards.

William C. Greer, regional programs associate for the Southern Regional Education Board, Atlanta, Ga., has been named executive secretary of The Council for Exceptional Children. He will succeed **Harley Z. Wooden**, the Council's first executive secretary, who will retire in July after 11 years in the position.

H. I. Willett, superintendent of schools, Richmond, Virginia, has been appointed a member of the United States National Commission for Unesco.

J. R. Rackley, dean of the college of education, Pennsylvania State University, is the new president of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

The Most Rev. John F. Dearden, archbishop of Detroit, has been elected president of the National Catholic Educational Association.

RECENT DEATHS:

Julian E. Butterworth, first director of the school of education at Cornell University and a former consultant to the U.S. Office of Education on rural school administration, at the age of 76.

Forest C. Ensign, professor emeritus in the school of education, The State University of Iowa, Iowa City, and a former member of the faculty for 56 years, at the age of 94.

Creative Talent

"OF all that has been learned in operating the Merit Program for five years, the most significant is the recognition of how little is known about identifying creative talent," John M. Stalnaker, president of the National Merit Scholarship Corporation, declared in a recent speech at the Carnegie Institute of Technology.

Even less is known about the proper development of creative talent, he reported. He stated that Merit Program researchers have been at work on the question of creativity for the past three years. "Although Merit's researchers and others elsewhere are beginning to make progress on this problem, there are no adequate measures at present to spot the potentially creative individuals," he said.

Stalnaker also expressed doubts about the emphasis many persons now place on an individual's IQ. "Frankly," he said, "the IQ is overrated . . . In the final analysis, it is not how bright one is, but what one accomplishes that counts. Motivation, ambition, the ability to direct one's efforts toward a specific goal, and sheer energy level, if there be such a trait, are characteristics which the IQ must not overshadow even though they cannot be measured easily."

The Merit Scholarship Program this year awarded 85 special four-year scholarships out of the Merit

Corporation's own resources in a new experimental program. Twenty-five of the new scholarships were to students whose records *suggest* promise for exceptional creative performance.

"Our present method for selecting these potentially creative students is only a first step," said Mr. Stalnaker, "but we believe we are on the right track."

A U.S. Summerhill

A Summerhill Society has been formed in New York City with an announced purpose of establishing a "Summerhill" school in the United States based on the principles of selfregulation. The organization is an outgrowth of the interest created by the recent publication of *Summerhill: A Radical Approach to Child Rearing* by A. S. Neill, who has conducted such a school in England for more than 40 years.

Announced plans are that the new school, to be situated in the Greater New York area, will follow the principle of "freedom without license," implying the equal rights of teachers and children with no one infringing on the rights of any other. It will be run on a nonprofit basis.

New Ford Grants

The Ford Foundation in April announced new grants totaling $3,742,000 for experiments to improve the preparation of school and college teachers.

The grants are the latest phases of two on-going Foundation efforts, one to help achieve a breakthrough in the training of school teachers, and the other to attract more and better students into college teaching and improve their training.

The new grants were as follows: $1,844,000 for cooperative programs at Cornell and Syracuse Universities and the Universities of Buffalo and Rochester to prepare secondary-school teachers and school administrators; $500,000 to the University of Maine to strengthen the training of elementary-school and secondary-school teachers; and a total of $1,398,000 for college-teacher recruitment and training programs at Stetson and Vanderbilt Universities and the Universities of Florida, Louisville, Michigan, New Mexico, and Utah.

Taylor U. to Move

Taylor University, which has been located at Upland, Ind., for the past 68 years, will be moved back to Fort Wayne, Ind., the city in which it was founded in 1846, according to a recent decision by the university board of trustees.

A major fire destroyed the school's administration building in Upland a year ago. Since that time, college officials have shopped around in Indiana and Florida for a new campus site. While the school still has 10 buildings on its Upland campus, the inaccessibility to Upland by public transportation, plus the need for being in an area where students may find part-time work, is said to have prompted school officials to seek a new site.

The new $10 million campus is being planned for a 233-acre site on the northeast side of Fort Wayne, according to B. Joseph Martin, president of Taylor University.

Teacher Reciprocity

NINETEEN states have now agreed to issue teacher's certificates to graduates of any nationally accredited teacher-education institutions, according to a recent announcement from the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.

Under this agreement, graduates may be licensed to teach in each of the 19 states, as well as their home states, without having to take additional courses to qualify themselves.

The graduates must be from colleges and universities accredited by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The NCATE has now accredited 343 colleges and universities; these institutions annually produce about 70 percent of the nation's supply of new teachers.

As of February 1961, teacher-education graduates from these 343 institutions are eligible for certification in the following states: Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Missouri, Nebraska, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, and Wyoming. The NCATE has been conducting a drive for this reciprocity for the last seven years.

Ten Schools Honored

TEN secondary schools in the U.S. have received special recognition by the American Association of Physics Teachers for excellence in science and mathematics programs, with special attention given to physics teaching.

The 10 schools honored were: West High School, Phoenix, Ariz.; Oak Park River Forest High School, Oak Park, Ill.; Lamar High School, Houston, Tex.; Garden City High School, N.Y.; Culver Military Academy, Ind.; Melbourne High School, Fla.; Beaverton High School, Ore.; Glen Rock High School, N.J.; Benjamin Franklin Senior High School, New Orleans, La.; and Western Reserve Academy, Hudson, Ohio.

This is the third year such awards have been made. Eric Rodgers, dean of the graduate school, University of Alabama, is chairman of the Association's High School Awards Committee.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

May 4-6, National School Boards Association, Philadelphia, Pa.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

June 25-30, National Education Association, Atlantic City, N.J.

Sept. 29-Oct. 4, Department of Rural Education, NEA, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Oct. 23-26, National Association of Educational Broadcasters, Washington, D.C. ●

Development in and through Reading and **Social Forces Influencing American Education.** Chicago: The National Society for the Study of Education, 1961. Pp. xviii + 406 and x + 252. $5.00 cloth, $4.25 paper-bound; and $4.50 cloth, $3.75 paper-bound, respectively.

These two volumes form the 60th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

Development in and through Reading (Part I) was prepared by the yearbook committee composed of Paul A. Witty, Robert C. Pooley, Helen M. Robinson, David H. Russell, and Ruth Strang.

The developmental aspects of reading are emphasized in this volume. Some of the chapter topics are: the contributions of linguistic studies to the teaching of reading, the effects of improvement of reading on achievement in other subjects, the influence of community forces on reading habits, the importance of motivation and interest, the use of auditory and visual materials, and sequential development in reading.

Included among the contributing authors, in addition to the committee members, are: Robert Thorndike, Nila B. Smith, Russell G. Stauffer, Ruth G. Strickland, and G. Robert Carlsen.

Social Forces Influencing American Education (Part II) was prepared by Ralph W. Tyler, Merle L. Borrowman, Robert J. Havighurst, and Vincent Ostrom.

In an introductory chapter, Ralph W. Tyler notes many of the forces influencing education today and comments, "Those of us directly involved in the conduct of and study of education find these marked and fluctuating changes hard to understand. They do not fit the pattern of growth characteristic of the period prior to 1940, nor are they in accord with the rationale of American educational development outlined in the leading professional publications."

The succeeding chapters explore the educational scene today by examining education as an investment in economic growth, the changing population, social-class influences, influence of traditional values, influence from pupils, the influence of professional organizations, and the influence of mass media. There is also a chapter by Vincent Ostrom that examines education in a political context.

Nelson B. Henry edited both volumes of the Yearbook.

Counseling in the Secondary Schools. John W. Loughary. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1961. Pp. xi + 153. $3.00.

The author writes in the preface to this book: "What many school counselors lack and need is a counseling frame of reference, one that is appropriate to the kinds of problems they encounter, and consistent with the type of institution in which they work . . . The objective of this book is to provide one such frame of reference and to discuss and illustrate its applications . . . There is no systematic attempt to review the general principles and concepts which are basic to almost all nonanalytic theories of counseling, except as this is necessary to clarify the frame of reference discussed."

The author accomplishes his objective by portraying the counselor functioning in the school community, outlining the scope of contexts within which the counselor works, and illustrating the problems, situations, and relationships encountered.

The author, a former high-school teacher and counselor, is now associate professor of education, University of California, Berkeley.

William Chandler Bagley. I. L. Kandel. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961. Pp. ix + 131. $3.50.

This year marks the 50th anniversary of the founding of Kappa Delta Pi, professional honor society in education. Dr. William Chandler was one of the founders of the society and this biography was commissioned by the organization's executive council.

The book, the author states, "presents an account of the professional activities and contributions of an educator who, more than any other in his day, strove to maintain a balanced point of view in education in the midst of the constant bombardment of an increasing number of cure-alls and panaceas which he began to criticize as early as 1907."

The author, now professor emeritus of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, for many years was closely associated with Dr. Bagley while both were members of the Columbia faculty.

Junior High School Guidance. Mauritz Johnson, Jr., William E. Busacker, and Fred Q. Bowman. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1961. Pp. x + 275. $4.00.

This guidance text is concerned solely with guidance programs at the junior-high-school level. Programs are described for both large and small schools with specific procedures outlined. Included are: a suggested guidance calendar, a list of test publishers, and bibliographies with each chapter.

The first chapter, concerned with the development of the junior-high school and the guidance movement, prepares for the following chapters by discussing the educational functions of the junior-high school and relating guidance to the specific functions of the junior-high school.

Foundations of Guidance. Carroll H. Miller. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1961. Pp. xv + 464. $6.00.

Dr. Miller is now serving with the U.S. Office of Education as Specialist, Preparation of Personnel Workers. He is a former head of the department of psychology and education at Colorado State University.

This book, suggested as a first-course text in guidance preparation, emphasizes relating guidance to social and cultural backgrounds.

The historical development of guidance is traced and integrated with materials from psychology, sociology, cultural anthropology, and philosophy of education.

An extensive listing of references furnishing guides to materials accompanies each chapter.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

Comparison of Practices in Handwriting Advocated by 19 Commercial Systems of Handwriting Instruction. Virgil E. Herrick. 1960. Pp. xi + 111. Available from the Handwriting Foundation, 1426 G. St., N.W., Washington 5, D.C. $1.50.

Health Guidance in Elementary Schools. New York City Board of Education Curriculum Bulletin No. 7, 1959-60. Pp. iv + 38. Available from New York City Board of Education Publications Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N.Y. $.50.

Courageous Comrades. Fredrika Shumway Smith. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1960. Pp. 200. $2.95. A story of the Wisconsin Territory—1836-1848.

Marksmanship for Young Shooters; The Air Rifle as an Instructional Tool. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, NEA, 1960. Pp. 25.

SECONDARY

Down the Colorado with Major Powell. James Ramsey Ullman. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960. Pp. 184. $1.68. One of the North Star Books series.

Preparation of General Secondary School Curricula. Unesco. 1960. Available from Columbia University Press, New York. Pp. 398. $4.00.

Electric Typing Methods for the Teacher. 1961. Pp. 32. Available free from School Typewriter Department, Royal McBee Corp., Port Chester, N.Y.

GUIDANCE

Today's Woman in Tomorrow's World. U.S. Women's Bureau Bulletin 276, 1960. Pp. xii + 138. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. $.50.

Your Personality and Your Job. Daniel Sinick. **What Tests Can Tell You About You.** Arthur E. Smith. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1961. Pp. 48 each.

GENERAL

Introduction to India. Beatrice Pitney Lamb. Washington, D.C.: American Association of University Women, 1960. Pp. 49. $1.00.

Equipment and Supplies for Athletics, Physical Education, and Recreation. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1960. Pp. vi + 97. $2.50.

The South African Tradition. 1961. Pp. 28. Available free from Information Service of South Africa, 655 Madison Ave., New York 21, N.Y.

The Educated Woman in Cartoon and Caption. Anne Cleveland and Jean Anderson. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. 90. $1.95.

Soviet Education Program. William K. Medlin, Clarence B. Lindquist, and Marshall L. Schmitt. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1960. Pp. xvii + 281. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., $1.25.

State Minimum-Salary Laws and Goal Schedules for Teachers, 1960-61 and Salary Schedule Maximums for School Administrators, 1960-61, Urban Districts 100,000 and Over in Population. Washington, D.C.: Research Division, NEA, 1960. Pp. 44 and 48. $.50 and $.75, respectively.

The Genius of the Irish Theater. Edited by Sylvan Barnet, Morton Berman, and William Burto. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1960. Pp. 368. $.75, paperback. A Mentor original.

The Wellsprings of Life. Isaac Asimov. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1961. Pp. 192. $.50, paperback.

The Ancient Myths. Norma Lorre Goodrich. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1960. Pp. 252. $.50, paperback. A Mentor original.

Estimates of School Statistics, 1960-61. Washington, D.C.: Research Division, NEA, 1960. Pp. 32. $.75.

New Designs for Research in Teacher Competence and **Who's a Good Teacher?** Robert B. Howsam. Burlingame, Calif.: California Teachers Association, 1960. Pp. 48 each. $1.00 each. Reports of special projects prepared for and published by the Joint Committe on Personnel Procedures, California School Boards Association and the California Teachers Association.

Encouraging the Excellent; Special Programs for Gifted and Talented Students. Elizabeth Paschal. New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1960. Pp. 79. Free.

The Education of Businessmen. Leonard S. Silk. New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1961. Pp. 48. Available free from the Committee, 711 Fifth Ave., New York 22.

Index to Volume XXVI (1960-1961)

Items are listed under author's name. The month indicated is the issue of THE EDUCATION DIGEST in which the article appears, while the number refers to the page on which the article is to be found.

Abercrombie, Stanley A., and Burt Johnson. A Safe Environment for Learning. Jan, 40.
Albjerg, Marguerite Hall. Blessed Is the Nonconformist. Jan, 29.
Alexander, William M. Uniformity vs. Diversity in the Senior-High School. April, 38.
American Association of School Administrators, NEA. Reappraising the Length of the School Year. Feb, 8.
Anderson, Robert H. Team Teaching. May, 5.
Arbolino, Jack N. What's Wrong with the Advanced Placement Program? May, 19.
Auer, J. Jeffery. Speech Is a Social Force. Feb, 23.

Bartram, William. Why Did He Quit Teaching? May, 32.
Barzun, Jacques. Our Universities: Unguided Missiles. Feb. 1.
Berry, Winifred. Italic Writing. April, 50.
Bjonerud, Corwin E. Arithmetic Concepts Possessed by the Preschool Child. Mar, 41.
Blank, Albert A. Calculus in the Secondary School. Feb, 35.
Bowyer, Helen. Forward to Phonetics! May, 47.
Bradford, Leland P. Group Forces Affect Learning. Oct, 21.
Brameld, Theodore. The Coming Breakthrough in Teacher Education. Oct, 5.
———. The proposals of Dr. Conant. April, 15.
Briggs, Thomas H. Questioning Science. Mar, 38.
Brownell, William A. Instruction in Lower-Grade Arithmetic in England, Scotland—and the U.S. Sept, 36.

California Journal of Elementary Education. What Goes on in the School Library. Jan, 32.
Campbell, Roald F. Financing Public

READER INFORMATION SERVICE

Send in this coupon to get additional information easily and quickly from the advertisers in this issue and about the materials listed in "New Educational Materials."

☐ **The Ronald Press Books**

☐ **Prakken Publication Books**

I would also like more information on the following books and other materials listed in this issue:

....

....

Name .... **Position**..............................

Address M-61

Send to THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

Education in the Decade Ahead. Oct, 1.

Campion, Howard A. The Role of the Junior College in Higher Education. Nov, 20.

Carlsen, G. Robert. Conflicting Assumptions in the Teaching of English. Dec, 50.

Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly. Graduate Education in the United States. Jan, 42.

Carroll, John B. Foreign Languages for Children. Oct, 35.

Caswell, Hollis L. The Nature of Good Teaching. Mar, 1.

Chamberlin, Hope. Continental Classroom. Jan, 19.

Chambers, M. M. Higher Education Is a Public Obligation. Nov, 38.

Chase, W. Linwood. Terminal Education. Mar, 25.

Coard, Robert L. My Museum of Morbid English. Sept, 32.

Conant, James B. Development of Talent in Europe and the United States. Sept, 16.

———. Recommendations for the Junior-High School. Dec, 5.

Corey, Arthur F. Issues and Trends in Public School Finance. Feb, 11.

Crandall, Lars G. Word Frequency Applied to Stenography. Feb, 46.

Crosby, Otis A. Guesses Don't Pay Off in School Elections. May, 16.

Cureton, Edward E. The Rearrangement Test. Sept, 34.

Dale, Edgar. Good Reasons for Doing Nothing. April, 32.

Dean, Stuart E. A Study of Promotion Policy. Mar, 32.

Dugan, Willis E. The Impact of N.D.E.A. on Counselor Preparation. Dec, 39.

Dunlap, Robert L. Teaching Anthropology in High School. April, 52.

Educational Policies Commission. Important Issues in Elementary Education. Dec, 35.

Eggertsen, Claude. International Education and Teacher Training. Nov, 50.

Eisenstadt, Arthur A. Spare the Rod and Spoil/Save the Child? April, 35.

Engle, Shirley H. Decision Making: The Heart of Social-Studies Instruction. Feb, 48.

Eurich, Alvin C. New Strategy for American Schools. Nov, 1.

Evans, Rupert N. Curriculum Benefits from Industrial Arts. Feb, 29.

Falls, Gregory A. High-School Dramatics. Jan, 38.

Ferguson, Donald G. Review of Literature on the Slow Learner. May, 40.

Finn, James D., and Elinor Richardson. The New Technology. April, 24.

Firth, Gerald R. Teachers Must Discipline Their Professional Colleagues. Jan, 26.

Fossett, Katherine. Guidance Institutes–N.D.E.A. Feb, 51.

Fradier, Georges. New Schools for Africa, May, 10.

French, William Marshall. Seven Additional Battles for Public Schools. Jan, 1.

Frisbie, Kenneth M. Let's Give the Teacher's Child a Break. May, 37.

Fritz, John. Educational Technology–Boon or Bane? Mar, 8.

Gable, Martha A. Educational TV–Catastrophe or Opportunity? Oct, 14.

Garber, Lee O. Marriage "No Cause" for Barring High-School Students. Nov, 32.

Gardner, John W. From High School to Job. April, 1.

Goldman, Nathan. School Vandalism. Dec, 1.

Gordon, Walton M. Hawaiian Public Schools. Oct, 9.

Grambs, Jean D. Understanding Intergroup Relations. Mar, 48.

Gray, William S. Looking Ahead in Reading. Feb, 26.

Griffith, Francis. Another Look at the Conant Report. Jan, 16.

Griffith, Llewellyn O. The Human

Comedy and Education. Oct, 29.
Graham, Grace. Sociodrama as a Teaching Technique. Mar, 44.

Haag, Carl, and Daniel Sayles and Donald Smith. Certificate Requirements for Reading Specialists. Mar, 47.
Hach, Clarence W. A Sequential Program in Composition. Feb, 42.
Harmer, Earl W. Le Mort de Core? Feb, 40.
Harris, Raymond P. Those Maligned Education Courses. April, 8.
Havighurst, Robert J. Adolescence and the Postponement of Adulthood. Sept, 26.
Hermanowicz, Henry J. Problem Solving as a Teaching Method. May, 25.
High, James. Latin-American Life: A Proposal for Junior-High and Senior-High Schools. Sept, 40.
Hill, Frederick W. Responsibilities of the School Business Administrator. Dec, 24.
Hill, Wilhelmina. Emphases in Elementary Social Studies. Oct, 41.
Hite, Herbert. Educators: Still the No. 1 Target. Dec, 27.
Holton, James S., and Gustave Mathieu. How to Use the Language Lab. Jan, 14.
Hurd, Paul DeH., and Philip G. Johnson. Problems and Issues in Science Education. Sept, 11.

Jenkins, Gladys Gardner. What Price Pressures? Jan, 8.
Johnson, Burt, and Stanley A. Abercrombie. A Safe Environment for Learning. Jan, 40.
Johnson, Philip G., and Paul DeH. Hurd. Problems and Issues in Science Education. Sept, 11.

Kaiser, George M. A Direct Line to Johnny's School. May, 34.
Kandel, I. L. Revival of American Education. Sept, 5.
Kays, Elizabeth F., and Mariann Marshall and Bernard J. Negronida. Beware the Foreign-Language Band Wagon. April, 41.
Keliher, Alice V. Do We Push Children? Feb, 15.
Kerlinger, Fred N. Implications of the Permissiveness Doctrine in American Education. Nov, 41.
Koerner, James D. The Tragedy of the Conant Report. Mar, 4.
Kvaraceus, William C. Tomorrow's Youth and Tomorrow's Citizens. Oct, 17.

Lambert, Harold. Publishing Your Book. Feb, 38.
Lambert, Philip. Team Teaching for the Elementary School. Feb, 5.
Lang, Arch. Skeptical Critics—Possible Allies? Sept, 23.
Larrabee, Harold A. William James' Impact on American Education, May, 22.
Lee, J. Murray. Elementary Education: 1985. Oct, 26.
Lieberman, Myron. Considerations Favoring National Certification of Teachers. Nov, 16.
Long, Jan W. For the Gifted Student. Oct, 13.
Lounsbury, John H. How the Junior-High School Came to Be. Mar, 13.

Maes, Wayne R. Why Educate the Mentally Handicapped? Jan, 35.
Margolis, Joseph. Juvenile Delinquents—The Later-Day Knights. Sept, 1.
Marshall, Mariann, and Elizabeth F. Kays and Bernard J. Negronida. Beware the Foreign-Language Band Wagon. April, 41.
Mathieu, Gustave, and James S. Holton. How to Use the Language Lab. Jan, 14.
McGrath, Earl J. Let's Free Liberal-Arts Teaching. Sept, 29.
McKibben, Margaret J. New Developments in Secondary-School Science. Mar, 34.
McNamara, Patrick. Why Federal Money for Teachers' Salaries? April, 5.
Menacker, Julius. Inter-Departmental

Team Teaching in the High School. May, 8.
Mead, Margaret. Are We Squeezing Out Adolescence? Nov, 5.
Mitchell, Jerry B. Merit Rating: Past, Present, and Perhaps. April, 12.
Mollenkopf, William G. Time Limits and the Behavior of Test Takers. Oct, 38.
Morse, Arthur D. Open Minds and Flexible Schools. Dec, 10.
Murfin, Mark. Forty Years of Change in the Elementary School. May, 28.

National Council of Teachers of English. What Should Schools Accomplish in English Teaching? Dec, 47.
National Education Association, Research Division. Class Size in Elementary Schools. Feb, 20.
———. The Financial Rewards of Teaching. Oct, 32.
———. Facts and Figures. May, 43.
The Nation's Schools. Should Schools Teach "About" Religion? Dec, 30.
———. Vandalism. April, 22.
Negronida, Bernard J., and Mariann Marshall and Elizabeth F. Kays. Beware the Foreign-Language Band Wagon. April, 41.

O'Connor, Patricia. Teaching Modern Foreign Languages without a Book. Sept, 48.
Ojemann, Ralph H. Watch Out for the Pendulum Swing. Dec, 21.
Overview. Language Labs: An Agonizing Reappraisal. Jan, 11.
———. Quo Vadis? Dec, 42.
———. Reader Aides for English Teachers. Nov, 46.

Patterson, Franklin, and Kimball Wiles. Program of the High School We Need. Nov, 12.
Pooley, Robert C. Dare Schools Set a Standard in English Usage? Oct, 45.
Popham, James W., and Lloyd Scott Standlee. Out-of-School Activities and Teacher Competence. Feb, 32.
Proff, Fred C. The Use of Appraisal Data by Guidance and Personnel Workers. Oct, 48.
Punke, Harold H. Inherent Human Worth: Fact or Myth. Jan, 22.

Raubinger, Frederick. Education as a Mode of Association. Dec, 18.
Richardson, Elinor, and James D. Finn. The New Technology. April, 24.
Robinson, Donald W. Who Is a Good Teacher? April, 19.
Russell, David H. Reading Research that Makes a Difference. April, 28.

Salario, Morris. The Mentally Handicapped Child in High School. Sept, 45.
Sayles, Daniel, and Carl Haag and Donald Smith. Certificate Requirements for Reading Specialists. Mar, 47.
School Management. An Interview with the Council for Basic Education. Mar, 16.
———. How Much Does College Really Cost? Sept, 8.
Seyfert, Warren C. Do Colleges Determine What the High Schools Teach? Nov, 28.
Shane, Harold G. Elementary Schools during the Fabulous Fifties. Sept, 19.
Skapski Mary King. Ungraded Primary Reading Program. Jan, 45.
Spache, George D. Diagnosis of Reading Problems in the Classroom. Nov, 47.
Smith, Donald, and Carl Haag and Daniel Sayles. Certificate Requirements for Reading Specialists. Mar, 47.
Smith, Nila Banton. Levels of Discussion in Reading. Sept, 42.
Snider, Robert C. Teaching Machines. May, 13.
Standlee, Lloyd Scott, and James W. Popham. Out-of-School Activities and Teacher Competence. Feb, 32.
Stendler, Celia B. Grouping Practices. Mar, 20.
Stauffer, Russell G. Individualized

and Group-Type Reading Instruction. Dec, 44.
Stolurow, Lawrence M. Teaching Machines and Special Education. Dec, 14.
Strom, Ingrid M. Research in Teaching Grammar and Usage. Jan, 50.

Tonne, Herbert A. The Changing Business Program in the High School. April, 47.
Trow, William Clark. Role Functions of the Teacher. Nov, 34.

U.S. Office of Education. Scholastic Ghostwriting. Jan, 5.
U.S. Office of Education, School Administration Branch. Public Schools in the Decade Ahead. May, 1.

Wann, Kenneth D. Children Want to Know. Dec, 32.
Waterman, Blanche V. How Adequate Are Our Minimum Salaries? Mar, 51.
Wattenberg, William W. Mental Health and Illness. Nov. 9.
Wellington, C. Burleigh, and Jean Wellington. Recommendation 21. Feb, 18.
Wellington, Jean, and C. Burleigh Wellington. Recommendation 21. Feb, 18.
Welch, Ronald C. Using Units of Work in Mathematics. Nov, 44.
Whitaker, Walter L. Why Not Individualize Arithmetic? April, 44.
White, Robert W. The Dangers of Social Adjustment. Mar, 28.
Wiles, Kimball, and Franklin Patterson. Program of the High School We Need. Nov, 12.
Wilson, G. Alvin. Tax-Favored Annuities for Public-School Employes. Nov, 26.
Wilson, Leland L. Teachers College Standards in Chemistry. Jan, 48.
Wriston, Henry M. The Futility of Accrediting. Oct, 24.

Zeldner, Max. Languages by Electronics. Nov, 23.

Just Published!

EDUCATION FOR COLLEGE

Improving the High School Curriculum

ALBERT R. KITZHABER, Dartmouth College; ROBERT M. GORRELL, University of Nevada, and PAUL ROBERTS, San Jose State College

This challenging book offers explicit recommendations, subject by subject, for improving what is taught to college-bound students. It assesses the content of courses, the quality of textbooks, the preparation of teachers, and the educational philosophies influencing the high school curriculum.

Based on the findings of fifty college professors of the liberal arts and sciences who studied the Portland, Oregon, high school system from the standpoint of their subject-matter specialties, this analysis of what the typical high school teaches will be invaluable to college faculty members, high school teachers and administrators, and parents. **1961. 224 pp.** $3.50

Other important Ronald books—

The Creative Individual—A Study of New Perspectives in American Education. Peet. $4.50

Teacher Education in the United States. Stiles, Barr, Douglass, and Mills. $6.75

Television and Our Schools. Tarbet. $5.00

Social Studies in Secondary Schools: Curriculum and Methods. Fraser and West. $6.50

The Teaching of High School English. Hook $6.00

Guidebook for High School Principals. Hansford $5.00

THE RONALD PRESS COMPANY
15 East 26th St., New York 10

7 JUL 1961

BOOKS, BOOKLETS, AND CHARTS
For Your Industrial-Education Department

-7 JUL 1961

Modern School Shop Planning

The only book on the market that completely covers the planning problems of school shops—equipment lists, safety factors, principles of purchasing, standards, suggested shop layouts, etc.

184 Pages $3.85

Machinists' Ready Reference

Compiled by C. Weingartner. Contains 100 of the most used tables and charts. Pocket-sized. The handiest, neatest machinists' handbook yet devised. Well indexed.
$1.5

Diamond Dust

By Tom Diamond. A collection of tongue-in-cheek articles emphasizing practical pedagogical points. Light reading-with-a-purpose. 112 pages.
$2.00

Campbell's Drafting Time Savers

"Machine Drafting Data," a four-page quick-reference chart. "The mensioning of Machine Drawings," a 20-page booklet giving informat on rules of dimensioning.

$1.00 each item for 1-5 copies; $.85 each, 6-10 copies; $.75 each, 11-50 copi $.60 each, 51 or more copies.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

On-approval copies of these publications available to administrators and supervisors for 10-day examination.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

330 Thompson Street

Ann Arbor, Michi

MADE BY THE DISABLED
REHABILITATION - INDIA
CALCUTTA—700 053